DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 481 940 JC 030 577

AUTHOR	Zamani, Eboni Mie'l
TITLE	Aspiring to the Baccalaureate: Attitudes of Community College Students Toward Affirmative Action in College Admissions.
PUB DATE	2000-00-00
NOTE	256p.; Ph.D. Thesis, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.
PUB TYPE	Dissertations/Theses - Masters Theses (042) -- Information Analyses (070) -- Reports - Research (143)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS
DESCRIPTORS	*Affirmative Action; College Admission; Community Colleges; Educational Discrimination; Educational Opportunities; Racial Balance; Racial Composition; Racial Discrimination; Sex Fairness; Two Year Colleges

ABSTRACT

This dissertation, written in April 2000, focuses on African American, Hispanic, and White community college students' attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. Specifically, the study examines the association between attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions, student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics. The author focuses on finding out whether attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions varied by race/ethnicity, gender, and future aspirations among students attending community colleges. Some of the key findings of the document are as follows: (1) 74% of African American and 57.5% of Hispanics agreed strongly with racial discrimination still being a problem while 46.4% of White students reported similarly; (2) half of Whites and over two thirds of students of color favored using affirmative action in college admissions; (3) the lower the GPA of White students, the more they favored abolishing affirmative action in college admissions whereas the higher the GPA of African American students they more they favored using affirmative action; and (4) whereas race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income and political views significantly predicted the odds of support or disfavor for affirmative action, separate logistic regression analyses produced different affects by racial/ethnic group. Contains 3 appendices and numerous graphs and charts. (MZ)

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ED 481 940

ASPIRING TO THE BACCALAUREATE: ATTITUDES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS TOWARD AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

BY

EBONI MIE'L ZAMANI

B.S., Western Illinois University, 1993
M.S., Western Illinois University, 1997

THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education
in the Graduate College of the
University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 2000

Urbana, Illinois

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EBONI MIE'L ZAMANI

ENTITLED ASPIRING TO THE BACCALAUREATE: ATTITUDES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGE STUDENTS TOWARD AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN COLLEGE ADMISSIONS

BE ACCEPTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR

THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Debra D. Bragg
Director of Thesis Research

Paul W. Thurston
Head of Department

Committee on Final Examination†

Debra D. Bragg Chairperson

M. Christopher Brown II

William T. Trent

† Required for doctor's degree but not for master's.

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ABSTRACT

This study explored African American, Hispanic, and White community college student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. The study examined the association between attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions and student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics. It was proposed that community college students might view affirmative action in college admissions differently than four-year students due to their aspirations for the baccalaureate. The study investigated whether attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions varied by race/ethnicity, gender, and baccalaureate aspirations among students attending institutions that award associate's degrees. Samples for the study were drawn from the 1996 Cooperative Institution Research Program (CIRP) database of college students, obtained from the Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California at Los Angeles. The results revealed several associations existed between support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions and student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, and racial affect. Additionally, the logistic regression findings illustrated that the odds of supporting affirmative action abolishing in college admissions was greater among White, male, two-year students with transfer intentions in addition to other independent variables found to effect the likelihood of affirmative action support or disfavor.

For my Grandfather Rayford Kidd - "Papa Ray"
Love Always

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, my doctoral studies would have been impossible without the infinite blessings of the Creator. I would like to thank God for answering my prayers and giving me the sustenance to write this dissertation.

I extend special thanks to my major advisor and dissertation chair, Dr. Debra Bragg, for constantly supporting my ideas and encouraging my development. Her thoughtful readings of my work have challenged me to think more critically and strive for excellence at all times. I offer sincere thanks to my dissertation committee. I have often referred to them as the "Dream Team" consisting of Dr. M. Christopher Brown II, Dr. Frankie Santos Laanan, Dr. Jane Loeb, and Dr. William Trent. Each of their expertise and liberal contributions greatly assisted me in every aspect of the study from start to finish. I feel very privileged to have been under the tutelage of this group of scholars.

Warmest thanks are extended to my parents, Mary & Richard House. Although no child chooses its parents, I am most blessed to have been born unto you. Thank you for being the first teachers, for laying the foundation for greater expectations and outcomes - I love you always. My family have been my bedrock and my grandmother always said "What God has for you is for you". Thanks Grandma for keeping the faith even if I was doubtful. Johnnie Mae Kidd, your faith has truly strengthened me ☺.

To James Gallaher, thank you for being a true companion, confidant, and friend. I appreciate your lending an ear and providing a shoulder to lean on throughout this challenging period - xoxo.

Special consideration is given to my colleagues with whom I have simultaneously experienced the growing pains of writing the dissertation. Eric, Ghazala, Kevin, Mike, Donna, Marwin, Norm, Janet, Conseulo, Tim, and Dave - It has been an honor riding the dissertation roller coaster with each of you.

The following individuals deserve special recognition for consistently fostering my professional and personal development: Dr. Bem Allen, Dr. Lerita Coleman-Brown, Dr. Charles Clark, Trevor Eccelston, Arthur Van Johnson, Julie Ludwig, Dr. Lawrence Mann, Janice Owens, Folake Oyeneyin, Dr. William Smith, Dr. Eric Stifler and Tierra Tivis. Thank you all for encouraging my growth.

I have been fortunate to have a support system that extends beyond those mentioned. I would like the faculty and staff of the Educational Organization and Leadership Department for nurturing me and assisting me in navigating my way to the doctorate. Also thanks are forwarded to Dawn Nichols-Owens. Thank you for being the sweetie that you are and for being there to assist me in meeting my data needs. You're the best!

I offer sincere gratitude to Dr. Linda J. Sax and Bill Korn of the Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California-Los Angeles for their dissemination of CIRP data. Thank you for granting me access to the data, this study could not have been completed without your assistance.

I also offer special thanks to Tanya C. Foucher and Ayanna S. Price for their sisterly concern, love, and friendship. For 20+ years, our friendship has been one of the many blessings have come to count on and give thanks for.

Lastly, never in a million years did I think I would be granted a fairy godmother and I am filled with thankfulness. Jacqueline Woods thank you for embracing me allowing me to benefit from your guidance.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As we enter a new millennium, the United States is becoming an increasingly multi-ethnic society. Changing demographics suggest that in the twenty-first century, the term minority will no longer be an appropriate designation as racially diverse groups will collectively represent the majority of the U.S. population (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1996). Over the years, as the population of people of color has escalated, higher education has become more culturally diverse. Prior to the 1960s, there was very little ethnic diversity on America's campuses (Bowen & Bok, 1998; Fleming, 1984). The expansion of opportunities in higher education for minority populations, particularly African Americans, emerged from the civil rights movements of the mid-to-late 1960s increasing the participation of minorities.

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1992), the percentage of participation of African American students grades 1-12 was 16.5%, Hispanics 12.5% and Whites 66.1%. Of the 1992 college-qualified high school graduates, 78% of Hispanic, 83% of White and 83% of African American students expected to earn bachelor's degrees. By 1996, the percentage of participation in elementary and secondary education for Whites declined slightly to 64.2%, remained stable for African Americans (16.9%) and increased to 12% for Hispanic students (National Center for Education Statistics, 1996). With regard to participation of students of color in higher education, community colleges have enrolled African American and Hispanic students in higher proportions than four-year colleges and universities for over the last 20 years (Rendon & Garza, 1996; Rendon & Matthews, 1994).

The 1997 total enrollment of baccalaureate-degree granting institutions comprised 70% White, 10% African American, and 8% Hispanic students. Correspondingly, community colleges total enrollment consisted of student bodies that were 65% White, 11% African American, and 12% Hispanic. Together, Hispanic students were 39% of the total minority enrollment for community colleges and African Americans accounted for 37% (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1999a, 1999b).

The National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities (1979), reported that in 1976, 50% of all African American college students (compared to 35% of all students in higher education) were in community colleges. Today the community college enrolls roughly 47% of African American collegians (Rendon & Hope, 1996), suggesting that educational stratification within higher education has remained virtually unchanged among African Americans and Whites (Rendon & Garza, 1996). With regard to Hispanic students, enrollment has increased due to the growing proportion of Hispanics in the population-at-large over the last two decades. Similar to African Americans however, the number of Hispanics attending two-year versus four-year institutions has remained unchanged over the last two decades. According to Sable & Stennett (1998), in 1976, 45% of Hispanic high school graduates who go on to college enrolled in four-year institutions and in 1995 that figure was 44%. By comparison, 55% of Hispanic college students attended two-year institutions in 1976, while in 1995 the percentage of Hispanics at two-year colleges was 56%. Students of color are disproportionately represented in greater percentages at community colleges as opposed to four-year institutions of higher learning, suggesting the vast amount of educational opportunities for these students of color has been at two-year institutions.

Before legislation was enacted in the late 1960s to enhance access to educational opportunities for students who were members of groups that had been discriminated against, there was a lack of diversity at two- and four-year American colleges (Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994; Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978; Trent, 1991a). In an effort to combat racial discrimination, Executive Order 11246 was established on September 24, 1965 to remove the barriers that restricted access to gainful educational and employment opportunities for people of color (Crosby, 1994; Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978). More specifically, any organizations conducting business with the federal government had to implement affirmative action by becoming more inclusive in their hiring practices (Busenberg & Smith, 1997). Affirmative action policies were originally enacted to remedy racial injustice of African Americans and promote a nondiscriminatory society (Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978). Over time, affirmative action evolved into a series of programs that seek to equalize opportunities among other disadvantaged and underrepresented groups.

Affirmative action was created to promote equal opportunity for African Americans in particular. The intent has been questioned and legally challenged since its inception irrespective of previous discrimination or its prior effects. The legal challenges illustrate the lack of consensus that has erupted regarding to what extent affirmative action ensures equal access and equality of opportunity. Throughout the country, attempts are being made to dismantle affirmative action. For example, the University of California, University of Texas, University of Michigan, and the University of

Washington have all had the burdensome task of making the case for promoting campus diversity through the use of affirmative action. As efforts have been made to equalize opportunities, a national conversation surrounding the legitimacy of affirmative action has emerged as women and people of color participate in higher education in greater numbers than in the past (Crosby, 1994; Ponterotto, 1990). The climate surrounding affirmative action in higher education leaves questionable the degree to which opportunity enhancement programs through affirmative action will continue (Chideya, 1995; Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994; Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978). Moreover, the rhetoric at many institutions of higher learning places a premium on student diversity, although the campus climate is actually less supportive of practices that support minority student participation.

While its future is uncertain, affirmative action has unmistakably provided access to college for various disenfranchised students, particularly African American students (Bowen & Bok, 1998). Attending college enables individuals to expand their personal and professional growth (Mortenson, 1991). Higher education opportunities are important because college attendance and completion are strongly associated with social and economic mobility (Bonacich, 1989; Kluegel, 1990; London, 1992; Milner, 1972; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). Correspondingly, postsecondary enrollment has been linked to earnings differentials between low, middle, and upper-income groups and between Whites and non-Asian minorities (Kluegel, 1990; Kluegel & Smith, 1983; Kluegel & Smith, 1986).

Social mobility and economic disparities may also be attributed to students being the first to attend college in their families. Commonly these students come from families where high school completion may have been considered the pinnacle of success. Consequently, first-generation college students are generally concentrated within low-income, racially and ethnically diverse communities (London, 1992). Underrepresented African American and Hispanic students have not participated in higher education to the same extent as White students from middle- and upper-income families with greater financial resources (Chideya, 1995; Jackson, 1990). As a result of financial constraints, academic deficiencies and poor standardized test performance, certain groups of individuals have not found traditional baccalaureate degree education readily available (Padron, 1992; Richardson & Skinner, 1992).

Given the open-door admissions of the community college, two-year institutions register a preponderance of low-income, first-generation White students and students of color (Padron, 1992; Richardson & Skinner, 1992). Community colleges provide routes to baccalaureate degrees by filling existing gaps in educational access for those who may not have other options for postsecondary attendance. The role of admissions and enrollment in two- and four-year institutions of higher education is fairly well documented (Adelman, 1999a; Atwell, 1991; Jackson, 1990; Richardson & Bender, 1987). Baccalaureate aspirants entering two-year colleges often differ from students attending four-year colleges or universities with regard to precollegiate preparation (Dougherty, 1987; Richardson & Bender, 1985; Richardson & Bender, 1987). Two-year colleges enroll the overwhelming majority of underrepresented and economically disadvantaged students in higher education (Kocher & Pascarella, 1988).

Statement of the Problem

Two-year students who expect to earn baccalaureate degrees have substantially lower socioeconomic status than four-year students with the same expectations (Adelman, 1999a). Whereas students of color espouse a high level of transfer intentions and baccalaureate aspirations, they have lower transfer rates than their White counterparts (Cohen, 1994; Richardson & Bender, 1985). Since the bachelor's degree is often considered the gateway to the professions and plays a significant role in determining one's upward mobility, it is problematic that students of color do not transfer at the same rate as White students (Bender, 1991; Richardson & Skinner, 1992). In addressing issues of educational access and attainment, there has been a growing body of literature examining affirmative action attitudes of four-year students (Amirkhan, Betancourt, Graham, Lopez, & Weiner, 1995; Bowen & Bok, 1998; Costantini & King, 1985; Doverspike & Arthur, 1995; Kravitz & Platania, 1993; Meader, 1998; Nacoste, 1994; Sax & Arredondo, 1999; Smith, 1998). However, literature is void of any discussion regarding how two-year students planning to earn baccalaureate degrees respond to affirmative action in college admissions.

Research has examined the attitudes of four-year college students toward affirmative action policies and programs in college admissions (Bowen & Bok, 1998; Constantini & King, 1985; Meader, 1998; Sax & Arredondo, 1999; Smith 1996). Although the determinants of student attitudes toward affirmative action vary, a common set of factors emerges when researchers study how affirmative action is received in higher education and at-large (Meader, 1998; Sax & Arredondo, 1999; Smith, 1996). Primary questions that have been examined by researchers are whether there is a relationship between self-interest and how affirmative action is perceived, and whether that perception is stigmatizing (Bobo & Smith, 1994; Crocker & Major, 1989; Kluegel & Smith, 1983; Turner & Pratkanis, 1994). A question that has not received attention from researchers is whether or not the same factors apply to community college students, particularly those desiring baccalaureate degrees. The relevance of affirmative action in college admissions to students seeking to move from an open admissions system to institutions with selective admissions is unknown.

Purpose of the Study

As more students turn to the community college for the preliminary years of baccalaureate education, the transfer function plays a significant role in higher learning institutions (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Glass & Bunn, 1998). At the 13th and 14th grade levels the curriculum is largely comprised of social sciences, humanities, liberal arts, and technical courses. The literature notes that the community college supports the transfer function as a way to provide access and opportunity to four-year institutions and gain acceptance in higher education (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Dougherty, 1992). In view of the fact that community colleges are continuing to enroll students who eventually plan to earn baccalaureate degrees, it is important to consider the value of the transfer function at two-year institutions as it pertains to access from community colleges to four-year colleges and universities.

This study examines attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions among community college students. Given the lack of inquiry with two-year collegians, the purpose of the study is to investigate attitudes toward affirmative action in association with the educational plans of students attending community colleges. This study attempts to generate information regarding levels of support or resistance toward affirmative action among two-year students in relationship to student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics. The study is guided by the following research questions:

1. How do two-year students vary in regard to affirmative action attitudes in college admissions and the independent variables, (i.e., student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics) according to race/ethnicity?
2. To what extent are the independent variables associated with student attitudes toward affirmative action for each racial/ethnic group?
3. To what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree do educational aspirations, then self-interest, and finally racial affect, add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?
4. For two-year students who intend to transfer and obtain a bachelor's degree or higher, to what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree does self-interest, then racial affect add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?

Significance of the Study

Traditionally, research has focused primarily on differences in the attitudes and beliefs of African Americans and Whites at the four-year level (Ayers, 1992; Meader, 1998; Sax & Arredondo, 1996). This study seeks to extend the literature on attitudes toward affirmative action by examining how a different segment of the student population responds to the policy in college admissions. Conducting this research is important given the present climate surrounding affirmative action in higher education. The research questions posed may generate findings that clarify how affirmative action programming is perceived by a segment of higher education students neglected by prior research (in reference to the dialogue surrounding affirmative action). Concerns that encompass equitable outcomes and address diversity goals make this study useful for both theoretical and practical reasons. Investigating potential beneficiaries' views pertaining to affirmative action among collegians at the two-year level may lead to an increased understanding of between and within group differences.

A better understanding of varied student views on affirmative action is cardinal and would be useful in facilitating how college officials' review, revise, and implement policies and programming geared toward promoting diversity. While research has addressed affirmative action attitudes in general, this study will add to the scholarly literature by specifically operationalizing favor or opposition pertaining to college admissions. Hence, this study can be beneficial to determining if the undergraduate population at community colleges value affirmative action as a means of equalizing educational opportunities.

This study seeks to add to the literature regarding affirmative action issues in higher education, as well as to the literature on community college baccalaureate aspirants. The study may have implications for future social policy implementation as well as social science research. Examining the affirmative action attitudes as reported by student groups at the two-year level could be useful to administrators concerned with campus climate in addition to being beneficial to researchers interested in issues surrounding access, inclusion, transfer, participation rates, and student support services. As such, this study has implications for higher education policy, community colleges and students as well as to extend research concerned specifically with the role of affirmative action in college admissions.

Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

The inquiry is confined to a limited sample of students enrolled in the community colleges that participated in the 1996 Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) American Freshman Study. The sample is restricted to African American, Hispanic and White two-year students. Though the sample under investigation is large, findings yielded from this study should not be generalized to all community colleges and two-year students in the United States.

It is not possible within the confines of this secondary analysis to investigate the myriad of factors that may influence affirmative action attitudes because variables of interest were limited to the CIRP database. Consequently, the factors of interest in this study are not representative of the total number of entities possible. The findings from this study rely on cross-sectional data gathered at one point in time. Unlike longitudinal or trend studies, this study can only extend to timebound inferences regarding two-year student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions (Krathwohl, 1993).

Finally, the current study is delimited to ascertain student attitudes toward affirmative action from the three largest racial and ethnic groups attending community colleges. As stated earlier, the enrollment of African Americans and Hispanics at two-year institutions is 11% and 12% (Phillippe & Patton, 2000). Although the affirmative action attitudes of Asian American students are pertinent, the current study focuses on attitudes toward affirmative action among students of color that are overrepresented in community colleges in comparison to their White peers. According to Phillippe and Patton (2000), Asian Americans account for 5.8% of all community college students. Regarding participation in higher education, Asian American have reached parity with Whites as they are overrepresented at four-year colleges and universities in reference to their general population percentage (Asian and Pacific American Federal Employee Council, 1977; California Postsecondary Education Commission, 1988; Carter & Wilson, 1997; Mingle, 1987). On the other hand, Native American students account for 1.3 of community college total enrollments (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1999b). Few of these students were drawn for the CIRP two-year student sample; it was necessary to exclude this group from this investigation.

Definition of Terms

The definitions of several terms are clarified by reason of repeated use throughout the study. The definitions provided specifically state what is meant by their use in this study. The following terms are defined theoretically and operationally according to their specification in this study. A few terms may be used interchangeably as they relate to the same group or concept (e.g., Black and African American, race-specific and race-based, community college and two-year institution).

Affirmative action refers to efforts to provide equal opportunities for the disadvantaged and/or underrepresented (i.e., women and people of color), commonly described as race-based or race-specific policies and activities. Affirmative action attitude is operationalized in this study by student responses on the 1996 CIRP Survey measuring attitudes toward its use in college admissions.

Baccalaureate aspirant is a community college student whose educational objective is to earn a degree from an accredited four-year college or university. As utilized in this study, baccalaureate aspirants are two-year students who have reported a bachelor's degree or post-baccalaureate degree as their highest educational degree planned.

Community college or two-year college is an accredited institution that awards the associates degree as the highest degree. In this investigation, community colleges are two-year institutions that participated in the 1996 CIRP sponsored by the Higher Education Research Institute of the University of California at Los Angeles.

Educational aspirations refers to the desire to attain an academic degree and fulfillment of occupational attainment via educational credentials. Educational aspirations are measured in this study by highest degree planned, chances of transfer and attaining a bachelor's degree.

Equal opportunity relates to Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act whereby it is unlawful for an individual to be discriminated against due to race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

Executive Order 11246 concerns federal requirements for affirmative action programs at institutions for underrepresented racial minorities and women.

Institutional control primarily refers to how colleges are operated and funding sources. This study measures institutional control by whether an institution is designated public (i.e., operated by publicly elected or appointed officials with public dollars) or private (i.e., an independent college with privately appointed officials and funding).

Perceived social threat refers to paranoia that fuels the maintenance of imbalance in the distribution of resources. As related to this study, affirmative action programs are seen as threatening opportunities and advancement of particular groups of students (e.g., White males) in an effort to enhance educational access for others (e.g., minorities, women, first generation, and low-income students).

Race or racial group/Ethnicity or ethnic group is used to represent socially constructed terminology for categorizing groups of people and to define groups based on cultural criteria such as language, customs and shared history. Defined in this study as African American, Hispanic or White.

Racial affect or racial attitudes refers to underlying sentiments and the deep-seated belief individuals hold about other racial/ethnic group members that could manifest themselves in subtle forms or overt displays affecting race relations. For the purposes of this study, racial affect refers to the degree to which students socialize with other racial/ethnic groups, view racial discrimination and rate the importance of promoting racial understanding.

Racism refers to a system of advantage based on race that involves rationalization of negative sentiments held toward a particular racial or ethnic group.

Stigma or stigmatizing refers to an undesirable attribute considered deeply discrediting whereby an individual or group is viewed less favorably because of it (e.g., race, gender, socioeconomic status).

Students or people of color are non-white individuals and within the confines of this study, collectively refers to persons of African or Latin ancestry (i.e., African American and Hispanic).

Self-interest is considered a person's general stake in maintaining the stratification status quo. As included in this study, self-interest pertains to academic preparedness as measured by high school grade point average, college choice and educational financial concerns.

Transfer or transfer intent refers to enrollment at one college ending in order to attend a different institution of higher learning. Intent to transfer is operationalized in this study by student responses regarding chances of transferring to another college.

Transfer-track student(s) are any students entering community colleges without prior college experience with intentions to transfer to a four-year institution to pursue a baccalaureate degree. Transfer-track students are reflected in this study by the educational aspiration variables.

White(s) within the confines of this study is used to identify persons of Caucasian or European descent.

Overview of the Study

This dissertation contains five chapters. Chapter Two discusses the literature associated with affirmative action in higher education and community college baccalaureate aspirants. Additionally, Chapter Two provides a discussion on theories of status attainment. Chapter Three describes the conceptual framework and methodological approaches used in this study. Chapter Four presents the findings generated from the quantitative inquiry. Chapter Five includes a discussion of the results, summarizes the conclusions and offers recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The chief objective of this chapter is to review literature relevant to the study of student attitudes toward affirmative action in the two-year college sector. This literature review also synthesizes research pertaining to affirmative action in higher education regarding how affirmative action has been framed from a historical, legal and sociopolitical perspective. In this chapter, the researcher presents literature that addresses questions posed in Chapter One that further focus the study.

Judicial and Legislative Origination of Affirmative Action

> In the 1960s the Congress amended the Constitution to extend suffrage to blacks, passed four major civil rights bills, and funded numerous social welfare programs, including the War on Poverty. These efforts to improve the situation of blacks were successful: the economic status of blacks improved, poverty declined, and on many indicators differences between races became much smaller. Will this racial progress continue? Or, just as the advances made by blacks after the Civil War were largely eliminated in the period following Reconstruction, will the gains of the 1960s and 1970s disappear in the coming decades? (Farley, 1984, p. 203)

The above quote published more than fifteen years ago questions the nation's commitment to equal opportunity and the continuing participation and advancement of people of color in American life. During this period of civil unrest, racial and campus crises manifested at several colleges and universities and efforts began to end racial divides through legal motions to ensure equality across racial/ethnic groups (Chang, 1999). Therefore, racial inequities intensified as a growing number of minorities criticized institutional policies and programs, asserting policy demands in education.

The 1950s began to lay the groundwork for what would become equal educational opportunity. In the case of Brown v. the Board of Education, Topeka, Kansas (1954) the Supreme Court maintained that the precedent of "separate but equal" set in Plessy v. Ferguson (1896) was no longer constitutional. As a result of the Brown verdict, it was assumed that educational institutions would no longer resist the enrollment of African Americans. In Florida ex.rel. Hawkins v. the Board of Control (1956), the unconstitutionality of "separate but equal" was extended beyond elementary and secondary schools enforcing higher education desegregation (Smith, 1996; Trent, 1991a).

Concomitantly, the 1950s and 60s gave birth to the idea of racial diversification and policy implementation as a national priority. Nonetheless, the promotion of equality for all was not widely accepted as systems of segregation, prejudice and discrimination continued. During the Kennedy administration, Executive Order 10925 was issued which later evolved into Executive Order 11246 which was a series of policy programming commonly referring to affirmative action (Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978; Trent, 1991a). Enacted in 1965 by President Lyndon Johnson, Executive Order 11246 was created to obliterate discrimination toward racial/ethnic minorities, hold institutions accountable for fostering diversity and promote the inclusion of disadvantaged groups (Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994; Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978).

Many African American students attended historically black colleges and universities or northern colleges prior to national efforts to equalize educational opportunities (Brown, 1999). By 1971, the formulation of affirmative action plans and programs were required at institutions of higher learning, particularly targeting predominately White institutions (Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978). At this time, affirmative action programs were beginning to address the needs of African American students with regard to access, recruitment and support services. Affirmative action, over time, has come to focus on increasing the participation and representation of other racial/ethnic groups (i.e., Asian American, Hispanic American and Native American). Likewise, affirmative action sought to address the concerns of the economically disadvantaged and women who also had been treated unfairly and experienced barriers to upward mobility.

Affirmative action in higher education has been challenged from its inception. It is mistakenly referred to as a form of preferential treatment or tokenism (Chideya, 1995; Feinberg, 1996; Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994). However, student affirmative action can be defined as special efforts directed toward African Americans, Hispanic Americans, Native Americans, and women to enlarge the applicant pool of potential students and advocate for equal educational opportunities (Trent, 1991a). As such, student affirmative action programs serve to redress historical discrimination, as well as the present-day effects of past discrimination, and to eliminate barriers to educational attainment for women and students of color (Crosby, 1994; Trent, 1991a).

The evolution of affirmative action from Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 sought to provide equal protection for citizens. Notwithstanding, many educational institutions continued to reflect de facto segregation despite affirmative action policies even though Title VI made it unlawful for American institutions to discriminate against any individual on the basis of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (Fleming, Gill, & Swinton, 1978; Howard, 1997; Trent, 1991a). Despite the intentions and original purposes of Title VI, institutions of higher learning find themselves being charged to defend affirmative action activities to be inclusive of the underrepresented and disadvantaged.

Framing of Affirmative Action: Race-Based or Need-Based

There is a need for additional research that addresses perceptions of affirmative action based on the framing of the policy or programming (i.e., affirmative action as exclusively race-specific). If affirmative action is presented solely in terms of race, then the anti-sentiment (e.g., negative stereotypes) that Whites may harbor toward people of color could manifest itself through opposition to race-targeted programs. Public opinion on social policies is often formed by how the issues are framed and presented to the public (Bobo & Smith, 1994; Kinder & Sanders, 1990).

Current debates about the framing of affirmative action have included whether or not members of groups that have suffered historical discrimination and institutional racism may be targeted by the policy (Boris, 1998; Crosby, 1994; Feinberg, 1996). In recent years, an alternative form of affirmative action has been proposed. Need-based affirmative action is thought to be a potential compromise by some because policies would no longer target just racial minorities and women but extend to persons who illustrated economic need from all racial backgrounds. Feinberg (1996) argued that race- and gender-based affirmative action addresses three moral issues that need-based affirmative action policies do not adequately meet. Those three are 1) historical debt, 2) equality of opportunity, and 3) economics and the distribution of societal resources.

Some scholars addressing affirmative action contend that public opinion finds fault with the notion of a moral basis for affirmative action that attempts to pay an historical debt to those persons that have been previously discriminated against (Boris, 1998; Feinberg, 1996; Trent, 1991a). In part, the United States was founded on dishonesty and free labor (Bonacich, 1975). In 1619, the first Africans arrived in Jamestown, Virginia, the first English settlement in America; it was there that the history of Africans in American (i.e., African Americans) began (Bennett, 1988). From the 1600s to the 1960s, African Americans had endured legalized prejudicial treatment. Affirmative action followed as a series of legal amendments to uproot the long history of discrimination toward African Americans in particular.

Affirmative action is often viewed as a burden imposed on present-day society to address historical discrimination. Much of the conflict arises when present-day Americans do not feel a sense of obligation for previous discrimination. Although people of today's society did not introduce the institution of slavery, all modern-day citizens have benefited from it having supported and stabilized this country's economy (Bonacich 1975; Bonacich, 1989). Although women and racial minority groups were excluded from full participation in American society, opponents of affirmative action believe the justification for gender and race-based policies perpetuates group rights to the exclusion the rights of individuals. In addition, affirmative action has been questioned as it is commonly perceived by its opponents, to promote preferential treatment at the expense of White males. A misconception of affirmative action is that it provides opportunities for unqualified persons (Chideya, 1995; Feinberg, 1996).

Affirmative action seeks to establish fair competition and level the playing field to members of some groups that still suffer the effects of past discrimination. One goal of affirmative action is to increase the representation of women and people of color in upwardly mobile positions (Feinberg, 1996). Affirmative action was necessary because

American institutions could not be trusted to voluntarily consider women and applicants of color. Race-based affirmative action asserts that the majority of African Americans and other underrepresented groups have not reached parity with Whites regarding educational and employment opportunities. Thus, race-based affirmative action is consistent with American ideas of fairness, as it has brought more people of color to the attention of employers and higher education admissions officers. On the other hand, need-based affirmative action supporters would argue that ideas of fairness are addressed more appropriately by setting lower economic status as the criteria for program targeting.

Finally, some proponents of affirmative action opt to endorse need-based affirmative action due to the unequal distribution of income, position and status in the United States. Societal stratification is such that need-based affirmative action expects to also serve the goals of race- and gender-based policies by meeting the needs women, people of color and low income people in general (Barras, 1998). Prior to the attack on race-based programs, the majority of Whites were comfortable with socioeconomic gap between themselves and African Americans (Kluegel, 1990). Need-based affirmative action presumes that inequities for all persons should be addressed and can be remedied. This perspective only entertains the economic factors of affirmative action while not acknowledging previous injustices to people of color and women.

Affirmative Action Legislation Affecting Higher Education

From its onset, affirmative action has been met with resistance by its critics and praised by its advocates. The earliest challenge to the use of affirmative action surrounded the appropriateness of race in admissions within higher education. In the case of DeFunis v. Odegaard (1973) the trial court found the use of race in admissions at the University of Washington Law School to be unconstitutional. The law school was accused of having separate admissions procedures for students of color by giving less weight to their predicted first-year averages. As such, DeFunis argued that under-qualified students of color had been accepted under affirmative action programs to the disadvantage of White students. The Washington State Supreme Court overturned this ruling on appeal by holding that it was in the state's interest to promote a racially balanced student body, in addition to addressing the shortage of African American and Hispanic attorneys.

Another early challenge to affirmative action was the Regents of the University of California v. Bakke (1978), which involved Alan Bakke who was twice denied admission to the University of California at Davis medical school and then sued the university on the grounds of reverse discrimination. The Supreme Court ruled that Bakke's civil rights had been violated in the use of strict set-asides. The court further ruled that numerical quotas were not admissible in higher education admissions. However, the court also ruled that the use of race as one factor among many for the purpose of increasing diversity was constitutional, given the legacy of historical discrimination and the continuing present-day effects.

Although women had been historically discriminated against in education and industry, vestiges of prior gender discrimination has not received the same treatment as issues of race. In 1982, Mississippi's system of single-sex colleges was struck down. The court denounced the justification of women's colleges based on remediation for past discrimination. In the case of Mississippi University for Women v. Hogan, it was ruled that women's institutions were no longer justifiable. Furthermore, the court forwarded that remediation for the previous discrimination of women did not equate to the injustices of people of color (Caso & Corry, 1996). Since the inception of affirmative action in the workplace, women in particular have benefited in hiring and are considered to have reached parity with their male counterparts in many venues despite lack of pay equity and differentiated promotions (Dutt, 1997; Hartmann & Whittaker, 1998; Hecker, 1998).

Legal developments in higher education have not been limited to issues of access and admissions. In Podberesky v. Kirwan (1994), the use of race-specific scholarships at the University of Maryland at College Park was questioned. The Benjamin Banneker Scholarship was a merit-based award earmarked for African American students. Given the history of Maryland's campus climate and racial tensions, this scholarship sought to address underrepresentation and attract academically talented African American students to the university. Podberesky sued the university for providing full scholarships to high-achieving African Americans, challenging the basis of the Banneker scholarship. Podberesky v. Kirwan illustrates how increasingly difficult it has been for institutions of higher learning to designate a fellowship or scholarship specifically for racial/ethnic minorities (Jackson, 1990). The federal court ruled that it was not permissible to maintain separate financial merit awards according to race (Shapiro, 1995).

In 1995, the University of California Board of Regents ruled that the use of affirmative action (i.e., student admissions and merit-based, race-targeted scholarships) would no longer be utilized at any of the colleges and universities within the California system (Terry, 1998). Proposition 209 sought to ban the use of affirmative action in the state of California. The Proposition passed by voter referendum thereby prohibiting student affirmative action and the use of affirmative action in employment decisions for both business and education. As a result of Proposition 209, challenges to dismantle affirmative action policies and programs are under consideration in several other states including Texas and Washington (Johnston, 1997). Advocates of affirmative action sought to re-appeal passage of Proposition 209 and in November of 1997, the U.S. Court of Appeals denied lifting the ban on affirmative action in admission and employment decisions in California due to the overall support for the state referendum.

Anti-affirmative action legislation in California has led to a more aggressive attack on affirmative action programs in higher education around the country. Concurrent with efforts to dismantle affirmative action in California was Adarand v. Pena (1995). Adarand concerned the use of race in awarding construction contracts. This case was without any mention of education. Nonetheless, this case has had far-reaching effects on diversity initiatives implemented in higher education. The rejection of judicial scrutiny for federal set-aside programs heightened the controversy surrounding the use of affirmative action in higher education. The Adarand verdict spurred greater resistance to affirmative action, prompted an anti-affirmative action climate and lead to a series of cases which have sought to dismantle it in higher education and in general (Amar & Katyal, 1996; Rosen, 1996). One such case was Hopwood v. Texas (1996).

Hopwood v. Texas concerned four White students who filed a suit against the University of Texas at Austin School of Law after being denied admission. More specifically, the students in Hopwood charged that the university had separate admissions criteria for African American and Hispanic applicants. The Fifth Circuit Court ruled in their favor prohibiting the law school from using preferential treatment to diversify the student composition. University officials sought an appeal of the Hopwood case in 1996 whereby the Supreme Court held that the Fifth Circuit Court ruling would stand banning the use of race and student affirmative action at Texas' public campuses (Healy, 1998).

In summary, use of race-based affirmative action in college admissions has been a contentious issue facing institutions of higher learning. Understanding the legal history of affirmative action is essential to understanding the context of the current debate surrounding affirmative action in higher education. In light of public polarity and political pressures, colleges and universities are faced with the challenge of implementing policies and carrying out practices reflective of inclusive educational opportunities.

New Frontiers in Affirmative Action and College Admissions

Within the last few years, various foundations and institutions of higher learning have been struck with lawsuits challenging the use of affirmative action in awarding fellowships, scholarships and internships for students of color (Barnes, 1996; Wright, 1997). Recently, the use of affirmative action in admissions at the University of Michigan (UM) was targeted for civil rights violations by the Center for Individual Rights (Lederman, 1997b). The Center for Individual Rights turned its attention to undergraduate admissions following their success in dismantling affirmative action at University of Texas at Austin's law school. Two White students who were denied admission at the undergraduate level filed a class-action suit on the basis of discriminatory treatment. The students represented in this case contend that different standards were used for admitting students of different racial/ethnic backgrounds. However, unlike the Hopwood case that revolved around Adarand v. Pena (1995), the UM case is based on the 14th Amendment to the Constitution and Title VI of the Civil

Rights Act of 1964 (Lederman, 1997b). Irrespective of the level of entry (e.g., undergraduate, graduate or professional) the use of race as one factor among many in admissions considerations has been questioned.

In addition to pressing lawsuits against the University of Texas and University of Michigan, the Center for Individual Rights has recently placed several universities on review for possible litigation. Among those notified of potential lawsuits is the University of Illinois and the University of Chicago (Grahnke, 1999). The University of Illinois has various support services at the Chicago and Urbana-Champaign campuses that are aimed at recruitment and retention of students of color. The Center of Individual Rights contends that the University of Illinois and other state institutions of higher education can look beyond grades and standardized tests without taking race or ethnicity into account (Grahnke, 1999).

Illinois is one of several states that have debated the use of affirmative action (Grahnke, 1999). Following unsuccessful attempts to dismount affirmative action in Texas and Florida, an attempt to dismantle affirmative action in Washington State was promoted (Tharp, 1998). Voters passed Initiative 200 by state referendum in a 54 to 46 decision. Very similar to its predecessor Proposition 209 in California, I-200 ended affirmative action practices by the state and local government.

Unlike California, Washington State is not very culturally diverse given its population is 83 % White and of its 5.6 million population, no racial/ethnically diverse groups exceeds 6% (Tharp, 1998). Although race and ethnicity will no longer be considered in the admissions process at the University of Washington, increasing attention will be drawn to factors such as socioeconomic status and personal disadvantage as a means of addressing diversity. The Office of Financial Management in Washington State compiled information from four-year institutions finding that the key beneficiaries of special and/or alternative admissions as well as hiring at Washington State's four-year institutions were White (Kelly, 1996). Kelly (1996) reported the following:

> Special/alternative admission standards have long been derided by critics of affirmative action as a "lowering of standards" which diminishes academic excellence and limits opportunities for those who are better qualified. To the degree that alternative admission standards can be viewed as lowering the bar, whites are jumping that bar far more often than African Americans in Washington's four-year schools.
>
> Because access to Washington's four-year public institutions is capped by the state legislature, demand for enrollment slots has almost always outstripped availability. This is particularly true when demand for post-graduate slots is considered in isolation. (p.78)

In summation, Whites were receiving opportunities of access under affirmative action in public higher education at greater rates than underrepresented students of color were prior to or following the installation of I-200.

The University of Massachusetts at Amherst has recently dismantled the use of race in admissions. In an effort to increase enrollment of students of color, the University of Massachusetts provided an edge to African American, Hispanic and American Indian applicants in admissions and financial aid decisions (Healy, 1999). In revising its use of race as a factor, the institution stated that students of color will receive the same "plus" factor that low-income applicants receive. The university expects a decrease in the enrollment of students of color given the alterations in policy. The university will attempt to increase its recruitment efforts in response to the declining enrollment of students of color. The University of Massachusetts decision to limit the use of race as a means of achieving campus diversity was in response to the review and retreat on affirmative action efforts at peer institutions (i.e., California University System, University of Texas and University of Washington).

Similar to the University of Massachusetts, the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA) has responded to the anti-affirmative action climate with an educational venture referred to as the Early Start Program (Chiang, 1998). Los Angeles Valley College and UCLA forged a program to address the retrenchment on affirmative action that has led to declining enrollments of students of color at UCLA. Early Start is comprised of tenth and eleventh grade students at John H. Francis Polytechnic Mathematics, Science, and Technology Magnet School who enroll in college credit courses. The students enroll in the Valley College honors transfer program as juniors and are expected to complete 43 credit hours of college course work. Eligible students are selected from a pool of candidates that have a 3.0 minimum grade-point average and pass entrance exams in Algebra and English. Students maintain dual enrollment while virtually guaranteeing a seat for themselves at UCLA. As a participant in the program, students receive an opportunity to take tuition-free courses and skip their freshman year. Early Start welcomes students of all backgrounds to attend; however, the majority of students from Francis Polytechnic are students of color (Chiang, 1998).

The Role of Affirmative Action in Two-Year Institutions

In spite of the fact that issues concerning affirmative action in higher education largely occur in relatively selective four-year institutions, the affirmative action debate has reached community colleges as well. The community college is unique in that issues surrounding affirmative action have traditionally pertained to employment decisions. As of yet, there has been a dearth of research that specifically addresses student affirmative action in the community college. A case in 1995 involved the Pacific Legal Foundation filing a suit on behalf of Janice Camarena who claimed she was locked out of class for being white (Caso & Corry, 1996). As a student at San Bernardino Valley College, Camarena registered for English 101 later to find that the course was under the Bridge Transition Program that is targeted toward African American students. The purpose of the Bridge Transition Program and the Puente Project is to match students with mentors who are of the same racial background, provide additional support services, as well as seek to increase the transfer rates of students who are of African or Mexican descent. The suit filed in a Sacramento U.S. District Court forwarded that the college operated segregationist programs and challenged it on the basis of Brown v. the Board of Education (1954).

Caso & Corry (1996) contend that "community colleges have sacrificed the ideal of a prejudice-free society to an amorphous notion that the races are inherently different and need different treatment" (p.44). The Camarena case was settled out of court. However, San Bernardino Community College maintains that Camarena's civil rights were not violated and that the open-door policy exists for all of its course offerings. Because the majority of community colleges are open door, at least for most majors, race issues surrounding opposition to affirmative action may not be evident in admissions for community colleges as they are with four-year institutions. In sum, affirmative action tensions could manifest through race issues within the community college curriculum through the various course offerings.

Concerns surrounding affirmative action at two-year institutions have also extended to financial aid policies. Student financial aid is largely awarded to students who display monetary need. When assessing whether or not financial aid affects students' decisions to enter college, the answer is yes (Jackson, 1990). Many colleges and universities attempt to ensure that higher education remains affordable particularly for high-achieving students who are members of underrepresented and/or disadvantaged groups, which are commonly racial/ethnic minorities. One technique for fostering minority participation in higher education is in the form of financial aid. Nevertheless, in recent years institutions of higher learning have been challenged for promoting race-specific scholarships.

The assault on scholarships for students of color received great attention in Podberesky v. Kirwan (1989). Similarly, at the two-year level the multi-campus district Northern Virginia Community Colleges (NVCC) faced a lawsuit for having a race-specific merit scholarship (Barnes, 1996; Wright, 1997). Unlike the University of Maryland's Banneker Scholarship funded with public money, the Leslie V. Forte Scholarship is a race-specific, privately funded award in the amount of $500. In his complaint filed with the Office of Civil Rights, Christopher Thompson cited the Podberesky case and contended that NVCC "discriminates against white male and female students by continuing to offer race and ethnicity-based scholarships that appear unconstitutional" (Wright, 1997, p.14). The Fourth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals that dismantled the University of Maryland scholarship program for African Americans also has jurisdiction over Virginia. The Forte Scholarship is one of two awards for students of color offered to five students per year at the college (Barnes, 1996). As a result, the abridgment of race-specific scholarships hinders the participation of academically talented students of color at two- and four-year institutions.

The challenge to affirmative action has far-reaching consequences for students of color across institutional types from state to state. The case at NVCC is particularly problematic pending the court's determination of whether it is unlawful to administer race-specific scholarships if privately funded. According to Wright (1997), the Coordinator of Affirmative Action, Minority and Legal Affairs at NVCC felt that the suit regarding the Forte Scholarship could have a negative effect on historically black colleges and universities. He stated, "The question is: If you can challenge this scholarship program, if it's illegal to administer these private funds, then the next step is to challenge funds like the United Negro College Fund and others who give money to Black colleges" (Wright, 1997, p. 14).

African American and Hispanic students enter higher education at lower rates than their White and Asian American counterparts (Gillett-Karam, Roueche, & Rouche, 1991; Rendon & Hope, 1996). Given this fact, the role of diversity initiatives and opportunity enhancement (i.e., the use of race as one of several factors in admissions decisions) may aid in bridging the gap between two- and four-year educational attainment. Research has noted that African American and Hispanic students have not reached parity with their White counterparts. The literature has suggested continuance of special efforts to recruit and, once admitted, assist students of color in their post-secondary adjustment and transition given the shifting demographics of this country's populace (Loeb, 1992; Trent, 1991b).

Whether an institution is a selective public university, state university or community college, the common thread within higher education is the pursuit of multiple missions. Research I & II universities promote a triple mission of research, teaching and service (Kerr, 1995). Comprehensive degree-granting institutions such as state universities focus on quality undergraduate and graduate programs and community service, while liberal arts colleges and community colleges emphasize excellence in teaching and community service. Due to various factors such as academic preparation, financial need, low socioeconomic status (SES), and family obligations, many students are locked out of attending four-year institutions of higher learning, particularly disadvantaged and underrepresented students of color. Four-year colleges and universities may find it increasingly difficult to successfully admit students of color in large quantities (Gillett-Karam, Roueche, & Roueche, 1991; Lederman, 1997a; Rendon & Hope, 1996). Given the threat of affirmative action retrenchment in college admissions, community colleges may face the possibility of serving a larger segment of first generation African American, Hispanic and White students.

Extension of Opportunities and Community Colleges

The community college movement got underway at the beginning of the twentieth century with the establishment of the first community college in Joliet, Illinois in 1901. During its early period of development, community colleges were referred to as junior colleges (Palinchak, 1973). The greatest growth for community college expansion occurred in the 1960s and 1970s (Fields, 1962; Witt, Wattenbarger, Gollattscheck, & Suppiger, 1994). Community colleges were developed, in part, as a result of the influence of several renowned scholars from high profile institutions. Advocates of community colleges included presidents of very prestigious universities such as William Rainey Harper, University of Chicago; Henry P. Tappan, University of Michigan; William W. Fowell, University of Minnesota; and Edmund J. James, University of Illinois (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Dougherty, 1994; Fields, 1962). Some of these scholars contended that education through the 14th grade should be as readily available as a high school education (Palinchak, 1973). From this framework, community colleges were viewed as an extension of high school while simultaneously being considered to have collegiate status (Palinchak, 1973).

Community colleges have a unique role yet bear similarity to four-year institutions. As in four-year institutions, there are various types of community colleges. In addressing the varying missions, functions, students, and curricula of community colleges, Katsinas (1993) developed a community college classification system comprised of 14 distinct types. The various types of community colleges include: (1) institutions with comprehensive offerings located in rural areas; (2) suburban colleges with a emphasis on liberal arts and transfer; (3) urban/inner city colleges with a focus on vocational courses and school-to-work; (4) metropolitan districts with centralized and decentralized governance; (5) colleges in close proximity to residential universities; (6) mixture of the above categories; (7) predominately Hispanic-serving institutions; (8) historically Black two-year colleges; (9) tribal community colleges; (10) colleges devoted only to general education and transfer; (11) exclusively technical colleges; (12) non-profit private institutions (sectarian and non-sectarian); (13) private proprietary colleges; and (14) community colleges administered directly by four-year institutions.

Just as the institutional types vary among community colleges, the curriculum does as well. Unlike their four-year counterparts, community colleges only offer the first two years of undergraduate courses. The 13th and 14th general education coursework has the dual function of meeting community college terminal degree requirements (e.g., Associate of Arts, Associate of Science or Associate of Applied Science) or requirements for transfer to a four-year institution. Additionally, vocational coursework has made gains in the curriculum at two-year colleges as many students seek career-oriented two-year degrees in applied sciences that also transfer to four-year institutions (Findlen, 1998; Fredrickson, 1998).

The community college also seeks to provide education for degree and non-degree seekers. During the 1993-94 academic year, 52% of first-year college students attended community colleges (Keener, 1994). The community college offers the opportunity for students from different racial/ethnic backgrounds, intellectual abilities, and academic interests to meet under the same roof for comprehensive courses and programs of study by way of open-door admission policies. Through their accessibility, community colleges have been a major impetus for change in American higher education, as well as a catalysts for addressing barriers to access and attainment among disadvantaged and/or underrepresented students (Rendon & Hope, 1996; Rendon & Matthews, 1994).

Community colleges refrain from discriminatory practices regarding student admissions by virtue of their open-door policies (Gillett-Karam, Roueche, & Roueche, 1991). These colleges have played a pivotal role in providing educational access to people of color and low-income students as these students are dependent on two-year institutions to advance their educational objectives (Kocher & Pascarella, 1988; Nora & Rendon, 1996; Richardson & Bender, 1987). Slightly less than 50% of African American collegians and approximately two-thirds of Hispanic students are enrolled in community colleges (Rendon & Garza, 1996). At present, nearly half (47%) of all students of color in higher education attend two-year institutions (Rendon & Garza, 1996). Often students of color view the community college as the path bridging the gap in their opportunity to attain a four-year degree (Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Richardson & Bender, 1985; Richardson & Skinner, 1992). Fostering access and achievement in the education of the disadvantaged and underrepresented is a laudable contribution of community colleges. For these students, two-year institutions serve as a viable alternative route to a four-year college or university.

Baccalaureate Aspirations and Transfer from Community Colleges

Many students at the community college enroll as a way of closing the gap to educational attainment at a four-year institution. Eighty percent of first-year students attending community colleges during 1993-1994 reported that they plan to transfer to a four-year institution to pursue a bachelor's degree (Keener, 1994). Currently there are more than 5.3 million credit-earning students at community colleges (Woods, 1997). According to the U. S. Department of Education Community College Liaison Office, more than one-fifth of students at community colleges transfer directly into four-year baccalaureate programs during their academic careers (Woods, 1997). However, community college attendance patterns examined through 1993-94 illustrated that 20% completed an associate's degree while 78% transferred without earning any credential (National Center for Education Statistics, 1997).

The term transfer can refer to numerous types of postsecondary transitions. Transfer can be horizontal and vertical (National Center for Education Statistics, 1997). Horizontal refers to transferring between institutions on corresponding levels (e.g., between 2-year institutions or from 4-year to 4-year colleges and universities). Vertical transfer is directional as opposed to parallel involving forward and reverse or upward and downward transfer. Forward transfer entails changing to a senior level institution, while reverse transfer involves switching enrollment from a higher level college or university to an institution that is not a counterpart (National Center for Education Statistics, 1997).

Researchers have noted that one way community colleges can reaffirm their position in higher education is by reforming and/or restoring the transfer function within their home institutions (Palmer, 1987; Prager, 1992). According to enrollment trends, many community college entrants are vocational-technical students (Prager, 1992). Notwithstanding this, as many as three-fourths of all vocational-technical students aspire to receive baccalaureate degrees (Hunter & Sheldon, 1980). In response, community colleges have initiated curricular reforms aimed at integrated academic and vocational-technical education (Bragg, Reger, & Thomas, 1997). However, the transferability of academic courses adapted or designed for career students has been problematic. Dougherty (1994) reported that the proportion of all community college transfers to four-year colleges dropped approximately 8.5% during the 1980s.

There has been a steady decrease in the number of students transferring from two-year to four-year institutions over the last decade (Prager, 1992). This decline, in part, can be attributed to the vocational emphasis in community college curriculum the last 15 to 20 years in which more occupational, career and technical programs have been offered, with more students moving from school to work. Still, students in applied associate degree programs (e.g., business, health, technologies, and service arenas) receive some training that qualifies them for baccalaureate pursuit. Subsequently, community colleges have begun to witness considerable growth in the rate of students enrolled in professional and technical programs transferring to four-year institutions for the baccalaureate degree (Bender, 1990; Cohen & Brawer, 1996; Dougherty, 1992). However, little research has examined transfer with respect to vocational-technical enrollment.

Although the transfer function is critical to gaining admission to four-year institutions for all students, particularly students of color and first-generation Whites, program completion rates are low (Astin, 1982; Brint & Karabel, 1989a). The onus for low transfer rates usually falls upon community colleges, not four-year institutions (Dougherty, 1992). Roughly 43% of students who began their collegiate careers at two-year institutions transferred: 5% left to attend less than two-year institutions, 15% to another two-year college, and 22% went on to four-year colleges and universities (National Center for Education Statistics, 1997). Consistent with the low rate of transfer, Pincus and Archer (1989) estimated that only 20-25% of all community college students aspiring to a bachelor's degree earn one. Additionally, Pincus and Archer (1989) concluded that African American and Hispanic two-year students were less likely to receive a baccalaureate degree than were White community college students. One way of addressing problematic transfer rates would be to develop admissions policies specifically targeting transfer students since many share similarities of being low-income, disadvantaged, first-generation or from underrepresented groups (Laanan, 1996). In sum, these findings suggest that issues of access for community college students should be considered by two- and four-year institutions of higher learning.

Institutional and Student Characteristics

> There are salient distinctions between two- and four-year colleges (Velez 1985), selective and nonselective universities (Karabel & Astin 1975; Kingston and Lewis 1990), and private and public institutions, which produce important sources of inequality in adult life (Coleman, Rainwater, & McClelland 1978). Where one attends college influences one's eventual educational attainment (Alba & Lavin 1981; Presley 1980; Sewelll 1971; Useem & Karabel 1986). (McDonough, 1997 p. 2-3)

According to the National Center for Education Statistics (1997), during 1989-1994, 43% of students transferring from a two-year college to four-year institutions were enrolled in a public institution. Correspondingly, 63% of students attending private, not-for-profit institutions transferred, while 32% of students attending private, for-profit two-year colleges transferred. Thus, transfer was more common among two-year students attending privately controlled not-for-profit institutions than those enrolled at publicly controlled colleges. Consistent with the rate of transfer is a relationship between student characteristics and espoused educational aspirations. For example, students who aspired to earn a bachelor's degree or more were two-to-three times as likely to transfer than those not expecting to complete a bachelor's degree within each type of institution (National Center for Education Statistics, 1997).

Institutional Control and College Choice

In accordance with college attendance patterns by institutional control is the relationship of SES in choosing a college. Students from financially affluent families with a history of college attendance are likely to afford private institutions while low

SES, first generation students are likely to enroll in public colleges and universities (McDonough, 1994, 1997). Therefore, family finances and affordability are important considerations when students make decisions about college (Paulsen & St. John, 1997). Literature examining the relationship between college choice and SES has addressed the role of financial aid in providing access and determining persistence rates at institutions of higher learning. Research has noted that SES is a determinant in diminishing the educational aspirations of low-income students (Valadez, 1998). As such, financial aid takes on increasing importance as students report major concerns regarding paying for college (Cress & Sax, 1998). SES has been found to relate to educational aspirations in addition to institutional choice (McDonough, 1994, 1997). It has been asserted that students of limited financial means less often attend their first-choice institution, which is particularly true for African American and Hispanic collegians (Hurtado, Inkelas, Briggs, & Rhee, 1997).

The institutional environment is an important factor in students actualizing the aspirations to earn baccalaureate degrees. Privately controlled institutions have been found to foster student development, retention and degree attainment (Astin, Tsui, & Avalos, 1996). There are approximately 100 historically black colleges and universities (HBCUs) in the United States, comprising 9% of baccalaureate-granting institutions, many of which are privately controlled (Trent, 1991b). Although 75% of African American students attend predominately White institutions (PWIs), HBCUs have consistently produced one-third of African American bachelor degree recipients (Chideya, 1995). For that reason, there are significant differences in the educational outcomes for African American students at traditional black colleges and universities versus PWIs (Jackson & Swan, 1991). Unfortunately, due to the costs of a private college education, many African American students cannot afford to attend these institutions specifically founded to foster their educational attainment. Although HBCUs and privately controlled, selective PWIs may be first-choice colleges for low-income and first generation students, public two- and four-year state colleges are often the routes taken toward the baccalaureate.

Race, Gender, and Enrollment Status

Many African American and Hispanic students who are disproportionately concentrated at the two-year level are located in urban areas, where they comprise a significant percentage of the population (Richardson & Bender, 1985). Agreeably, a study by Orfield and Associates (as cited in Freeman, 1998) concluded that issues of access and school choice for students of color are often based on their local residence. Frequently, institutions that are within an individual's financial reach and in close proximity to where one lives are community colleges. It has been found that community colleges have a profound impact on student aspirations (Brint & Karabel, 1989a; Dougherty, 1994; Richardson & Bender, 1985). The National Center for Education Statistics (1997) reported that a positive relationship between SES and transfer behavior was found to exist. Among two-year students who had transfer intentions, 25% of low-SES students transferred, compared to 40% of middle-SES, and 60% of high-SES. Thus, low SES students who begin their post-secondary education at a community college for reasons of cost and proximity are less likely to reach their goal of a baccalaureate.

In addition, many urban community colleges boast large enrollments and research has noted that the size and level of an institution can adversely impact student aspirations

(Carter, 1999a). Attinasi offers (as cited in Carter, 1999a), irrespective of tier, that large student enrollments have been thought to hinder students from making sense of their institutional environments and in turn prevent them from self-actualizing. For students who look to two-year institutions as the conduit to a bachelor's degree, critics have contended that the community college is not the optimal environment for those seeking bachelor degree completion (Brint & Karabel, 1989a, 1989b; Clark; 1960; Karabel, 1986; Dougherty, 1987, 1994; Pascarella et al., 1998; Whitaker & Pascarella, 1994).

Rhoads (1999) asserts that institutions of higher learning illustrate the interconnectedness of culture, identity, and schooling. Not only does racial/ethnic cultural pluralism (i.e., diversity) shape campus climates, but the heterogeneity of student gender, age, and status of enrollment level does as well. The majority of college students earning two-year and bachelor's degrees are female (Jacobs, 1999). Similar to persons of color however, women are over-represented in two-year institutions (Jacobs, 1985,1999). Women were also found to disproportionately attend institutions that were not their first-college choice.

The literature in reference to enrollment status of women reports that a significant number enroll at community colleges as part-time students; many of whom are not traditional college-age (i.e., 18-24) students (Jacobs, 1999; National Center for Educational Statistics, 1997). Full-time, baccalaureate degree aspirants attending two-year institutions were twice as likely as part-timers to transfer to a four-year college or university within five years (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1997). Therefore, the racial/ethnic background, gender and enrollment status of community college students relate to the orientation of those attending, the campus climate and institutional culture.

Clearly issues revolving around race and gender affect campus climate differently across institutional contexts given the unique student compositions of the various levels at colleges and universities.

Political Ideologies and Views

Given the diverse student bodies at many institutions of higher learning, the political ideologies of students at various colleges and universities are likely to differ. Research is limited in examining student affirmative action attitudes as they relate to socio-political views by race, gender and income. The literature has discussed in great detail the public opinion of Whites about affirmative action as related to measures of conservatism and liberalism (Sniderman, 1991, 1993a). However, there has been a lack of inquiry regarding people of color, their attitudes toward affirmative action and political leanings. This may be due in part to a general misconception that these groups hold beliefs that resemble one another (Falcon, 1988; Shingles, 1992; Siegelman & Welch, 1991). Often people of color are portrayed as homogenous with regard to social policy concerns, as if racial/ethnic minorities represent a monolithic point of view (Siegelman & Welch, 1991; Sniderman, 1993b). But members of racial/ethnic minorities have multiple group identities as they are often members of various social categories (e.g., Hispanic, female, etc.). As a result there is a continuum of political ideologies, referred to as minority consciousness. According to Shingles (1992), minority consciousness extends from conservatism, to liberalism, to radicalism. Conservatives generally echo preference of the status quo, while not challenging the distribution of societal resources or the stratification of their group's positioning in the present social order (Shingles, 1992; Van Dyke, 1995). Liberals are considered to be individuals who question unequal participation of all citizens, advocate for governmental intervention in assuring equity and at the same time maintaining a basic belief in economic, political and social reform (Feldman & Zaller, 1992). Lastly, radicals espouse the outermost rejections of the existing social order and link racism and sexism to the underlying principles of American politics (Shingles, 1992).

The above political ideologies (i.e., conservatism and liberalism) generally influence the political behavior of diverse racial/ethnic groups in the United States. Political ideologies many times act in accordance with how individuals justify or rationalize their stance on social and political matters (Hinich & Munger, 1994; Kerlinger, 1984). In turn, there is a convincing degree of association between racial attitudes and political view (Sears, 1996; Sniderman, 1991, 1993a). On that account, the political views of various groups could assist in explaining attitudes people hold toward affirmative action. Additionally, the way in which people of color view their status individually and collectively implies important considerations regarding social policy issues. The division in political ideologies between African Americans and Hispanics is likely due to the historical differences in the experiences of each group, their perceptions regarding minority status and present societal positioning as related to social and educational attainment (Falcon, 1988).

Race, Campus Climate, and Affirmative Action Attitudes

Race matters at institutions of higher learning, because it is an important factor in assessing campus climate (Yang, 1992; Chang, 1999). Research which addresses the feelings and perceptions of the student body is needed to further understand the campus climate (Yang, 1992). Campus climate can be defined as the daily sum of the environment in which one is surrounded (Chang, 1999). Therefore, campus climate refers to the level of comfort experienced by majority students, students of color, faculty, administrators, and staff (Hurtado & Carter, 1997). Higher educational institutions should make concerted efforts to provide a campus community that is diverse and inclusive of students from all racial/ethnic groups (Rendon, Justiz, & Resta, 1988; Riordan, 1993).

The majority of students of color attend predominately White two- and four-year institutions where the campus climate is geared to the majority student (Rendon, Justiz, & Resta, 1988; Riordan, 1993). The socialization and academic integration of students of color in a campus community that is seemingly foreign to them is problematic. Literature has suggested that campus climate can impact the adjustment and transition of students of color in higher education (Cabera, Nora, Terenzini, Pascarella & Hagedorn, 1999; Hurtado & Carter, 1997). Riordan (1993) maintained that campus climate can positively or negatively affect student retention for students of color. In addressing overall campus climate it is critical for higher education to be concerned with the experience of students both in and out of the classroom.

Conflicts regarding race often refer to how persons of different racial/ethnic groups get along with one another. In a study addressing climate issues, a telephone survey of 1,170 African American, Hispanic and White respondents ages 15-24 concluded that these youth are cynical about improved race relations (Collison, 1992). Fifty percent of those surveyed viewed race relations as "generally bad". Research on social policies has indicated that race sharply polarizes positions taken amongst different racial/ethnic groups (Bobo & Smith, 1994). National opinion surveys have found that the overwhelming majority of Whites oppose government programs that provide special assistance to African Americans (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993). Research has noted that the driving force of American race relations is the degree to which Whites and people of color differ on social policy issues due to their values and beliefs about inequality (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Bobo & Smith, 1994; Collison, 1992).

Americans' beliefs about inequality illustrate a racial divide regarding policy implementation. A minute amount of research has investigated the extent to which campus climate and racial composition affect student attitudes toward diversity initiatives such as affirmative action. Chang (1996) examined whether the effects of racial diversity vary according to institutional characteristics (i.e., type, size, or selectivity) as well as inform the debate concerning affirmative action in college admissions. The findings from his study were drawn from analysis of the 1985 Cooperative Institutional Research Program database of college students and 1989 follow-up survey. Two-year students were omitted from the analysis due to the small sample size. The results illustrated that institutional type was associated with racial diversity. Four-year colleges were found to be less racially heterogeneous than universities. Due to universities having larger enrollments than four-year colleges on average, the findings suggest that increases in racial diversity are consistent with larger enrollment sizes. The results did not provide evidence to support institutional selectivity being negatively associated with racial diversity. He asserted that selective institutions are no less successful at attracting underrepresented students of color than less selective institutions. Furthermore, he contended that selective institutions are engaged in aggressive recruiting tactics and/or practice race-based admissions in diversifying enrollments.

Racial Policy Attitudes

Social policy implementation that is race-specific or race-based has become commonly referred to as affirmative action programming (Chang, 1996). Persons of different racial/ethnic backgrounds often perceive affirmative action differently (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Kluegel & Smith, 1983; Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994). A discrepancy exists in how Whites react to policies targeting diverse racial/ethnic groups (Kluegel, 1990; Smith & Kluegel, 1984). Research addressing attitudes toward affirmative action illustrates that White Americans agree with affirmative action in theory but not in practice (Dovidio, Mann, & Gaertner, 1989; Kluegel & Smith, 1986). The majority of Whites contend that they are egalitarian in their views and support opportunity enhancing programming. However, a paradox exists in levels of support for affirmative action when it is specifically race-specific (Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1993).

Opposition to affirmative action may be attributable to attitudinal reactions to race-based policies and programming. Negative attitudes toward people of color may manifest themselves in opposition to affirmative action (Dovidio, Mann, & Gaertner, 1989; Kluegel & Smith, 1983). Negative racial attitudes or racial affect illustrates a form of racism expressed by an individual's attitudes and beliefs about persons from different racial/ethnic groups. Racial affect is displayed in subtle or overt expressions that reflect an individual's opinion regarding changes in social stratification and the status quo. Nosworthy, Lea, & Lindsay, (1995) investigated the reactions of undergraduates to affirmative action program implementation benefiting African Americans. The findings suggested that students might object to affirmative action policy and program implementation because of special attention paid to African Americans. In questioning the predictive value of racial attitudes, negative racial affect resulted as the primary determinant of opposition to affirmative action (Nosworthy, Lea, & Lindsay, 1995). However, the negativity associated with student rejection of affirmative action may be due to misconceptions regarding the policy.

In a study of 277,850 college freshmen representing 709 U.S. colleges and universities, Sax and Arredondo (1999) assessed college student attitudes toward affirmative action. Using the 1996 Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) Freshman Survey, their study examined attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions as it relates to gender, self-interest, political ideology and prejudice/racism. The researchers concluded that first-year collegians might not understand the intentions of affirmative action. Right-wing conservatives may have mounted opposition to affirmative action, but resistance has sprung forth from a variety of citizens. The differences across and within racial/ethnic groups varied according to gender, racial background, socioeconomic status, academic preparation, political ideology, and attitudes concerning race. Approximately 50% of college freshmen responding to the 1996 survey favored abolishing the use of affirmative action in college admissions (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1996).

Consistent with Sax and Arredondo (1999), Meader (1998) conducted a cross-sectional study of six Midwest institutions in Illinois, Michigan and Ohio examining student attitudes toward diversity and race-based policies. The survey findings revealed that both African American and White students were more likely to oppose race-based policies when they perceived their institution as supportive of African American concerns. As a result of this finding, it was suggested that evaluating the need for race-specific policies was based on perceived level of institutional support to meet the needs of students of diverse backgrounds (Meader, 1998).

Literature pertaining to the attitudes of potential beneficiaries toward affirmative action has found that African Americans are generally supportive of race-based programming efforts at four-year institutions (Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994; Dovidio, Mann, & Gaertner, 1989; Kinder & Sears, 1981; Kluklinski et al., 1996; McConahay, 1986). In contrast to African Americans, research has noted that support for affirmative action among Hispanic students was dependent upon SES and English as a second language. For Hispanic collegians, higher SES and/or English as the native language were indicative of resistance toward affirmative action in college admissions (Sax & Arredondo, 1999).

Differences in opinion regarding affirmative action are not exclusive to race/ethnicity. In addressing gender differences relative to affirmative action, a fair number of studies have addressed White women's perceptions of affirmative action (Chacko, 1982; Dovidio, Mann, & Gaertner, 1989; Heliman, Simon, & Repper, 1987; Kluegel & Smith, 1983; Nacoste, 1987; Smith & Kluegel, 1984; Turner & Pratkanis, 1994). Research has found Whites do not support race-based policies on average, and White women have not been more racially tolerant than their male counterparts, despite having benefited from affirmative action programs (Smith, 1993; Zamani, 1997). In other words, in examining whether gender inequality would prompt women to be more supportive of race-specific affirmative action, opposition to affirmative action among White women did not differ from White men.

Views Regarding Racial Policies and Self-Interest

Various policy attributes of affirmative action fall on opposite ends of a continuum from anti-discrimination provisions to special considerations to increase opportunities for African Americans (Kluegel & Smith, 1983). In addressing racial attitudes and affirmative action, researchers have found that the vast majority of Whites oppose government assistance in the form of race-specific programming (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Tuch & Hughes, 1996a; Tuch & Hughes, 1996b). Self-interest research is one area that focuses on the tendency of Whites to reject initiatives that seek to rectify the effects of prior and present racial discrimination (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Kluegel, 1983). Thus, the rejection of affirmative action based on self-interest may be attributed to notions about unfairness regarding social policies and programs that seek to assist marginalized groups.

Kluegel and Smith (1983) describe self-interest as one's concern with the maintenance of the status quo. Self-interest can be defined at the individual and group level. Individual self-interest refers to private interests in rates of return or loss for a person and direct family members. In contrast, group self-interest would involve making group-based appraisals when taking race-based policies into account due to one's categorical identification or affiliation (Bobo & Smith, 1993; Sears & Kinder, 1985).

Another form of self-interest that exists is economic self-interest addressing notions of financial threat and personal livelihood (Kluegel & Smith, 1983). Closely related to individual and group self-interest, economic self-interest refers to competitive and cooperative forms of self-interest. With respect to White opposition to affirmative action, Kluegel and Smith (1983) define competitive self-interest as perceived or direct competition for societal resources (i.e., access to jobs, promotions and schooling) with African Americans and other racial minority groups. As such, competitive self-interest relates to both individual self-interest and group self-interest. On the other hand, cooperative self-interest concerns anticipation of receiving benefits from initiatives made in the best interest of others. In extending self-interest to members of disadvantaged groups, cooperative self-interest more readily extends to group self-interest.

It has been argued that race-targeted initiatives are less likely favored in lieu of class-based or income-targeted programming efforts due to the competitive individual and group self-interest of Whites (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Wilson, 1987). Therefore, to some extent the attitudes of Whites may be affected by self-interest. Jackman (1996) suggests, "Self-interested individuals tend to evolve attitudinal strategies that promote the interests of their group, since their long-term fate is linked to those other members of society who share similar life chances and who are subject to the same general constraints as themselves" (p. 764). Thus, race-targeted policies may be a threat to Whites as they assert self-interested positions and pursue ways of protecting their advantageous racial status (Stoker, 1996; Jackman, 1996).

Although self-interest has largely been discussed in reference to Whites, the literature has considered self-interest in reference to women and African Americans. Given gender disparities, it is expected that women would be less likely to oppose affirmative action. Kluegel and Smith (1983) proposed that women might favor all opportunity-enhancing programs if they expect to benefit from affirmative action programs for women comparable to those for African Americans. Similarly, the self-interest of people of color should be cooperative in nature. On the basis of group self-interest, differences in racial policy issues are presumed to occur. Research has contended that African Americans typically show more support for race-targeted policies than do Whites of the same economic standing (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Dovidio, Mann & Gaertner, 1989; Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994; Sax & Arrendondo, 1999). Thus, low socioeconomic Whites are more apt to favor income-targeted policies that meet their individual and group self-interests.

The particular group to which a person ascribes could bear some relationship to one's racial identity and policy attitudes. Social scientists have conducted research that examines the relationships between identity, stigma, social stratification, and self-interest (Ainlay, Coleman, Becker, 1986; Crocker & Major, 1989; Jones, et al., 1984). Sears and Jessor (1996) contend that the perceived group interest of Whites is contingent upon indicators of White group identity or self-categorization (i.e., frequent thoughts of themselves as White as opposed to other classifications). They described White identity as perceived closeness to Whites as a group. Thus, what solidified group self-interest among Whites in opposition to affirmative action greatly extended to the sentiment that people of color received more opportunities while they were given less. In turn, an issue of equal importance is the role that African American and Hispanic self-categorization may play in accounting for levels of support or resistance toward race-based policies among potential beneficiary groups.

In tandem with the sociological conception of self-interest is interest convergence. Interest convergence theory examines racial bias and intolerance from a self-interest frame of reference. Forwarded by Bell (1992) interest convergence theory postulates the existence of exclusionary racial neutrality in present-day society due to displays of racism being less visible. Bell asserts that the covert signs of racism paint an illusory picture that racial discrimination no longer exists. He also argues that the dominant group acts in the interest of persons of color; not in the name of justice, rather out of cooperative self-interest in order to gain or create greater dominance for themselves (Bell, 1987a). Hence, the dominant group may purport to being egalitarian regarding the constitutional protection of people of color. However, concrete disagreement occurs in the event that re-mediation for previous injustice alters the status of Whites (Bell, 1987b, 1995). A classic theory consistent with interest convergence suggests that as racial minorities experience increases in population, discrimination toward its group members rises in response to witnessed expansion (Blalock, 1967). This theory, relative to group composition, is linked to perceived social threat as the potential competition over scarce resources from people of color is viewed as problematic to Whites. Perhaps this reaction of the dominant group to population growth among racial/ethnic minorities is precursory to the racial divide currently around affirmative action. The increasingly strong divergence of opinion between Whites and people of color (i.e., African Americans in particular) is one example of cultural disdain as it relates to matters of public policy.

Status Attainment Theory

The community college has played a historical role within the structure of American education (Labaree, 1990). Status attainment theory provides a useful framework for examining community college student attitudes toward affirmative action relative to their educational aspirations to obtain baccalaureate degrees. Karabel (1986) argued that the community college submerged class conflict due to its place in the larger system of educational and social stratification. The stratification of higher education casts community colleges as the bottom tier within post-secondary education (Brint & Karabel, 1989b; Karabel, 1986). Disadvantaged and underrepresented students have come to rely on community colleges for educational enrichment and individual status attainment. However, evidence suggests status attainment prospects for community college students are arduous and often attenuated for those who wish to earn baccalaureate degrees given significant under-representation of low-income and minority students in the upper tiers of higher learning (Brint & Karabel, 1989b; Dougherty, 1987, 1988; Labaree, 1990).

Status attainment theory posits explanations for the attainment of adults based on different factors that influence the probability of various life outcomes due to the problem of inequality (Karabel & Halsey, 1979). Status attainment research emerged in the 1960s as an approach to analyzing the occupational attainment and social mobility of adults (Blau & Duncan, 1967; Duncan, Featherman, & Duncan, 1972; Sewell & Shaw, 1967). In a classic study of occupational attainment, Blau and Duncan (1967) advanced one of the earliest theories of status attainment. Blau and Duncan argue that the occupational status of adults was a result of family origin and personal characteristics. They contend that future success and life outcomes stem from the influence of one's family background coupled with the attributes of the individual. Consistent with Blau and Duncan's model, other researchers have broadened status attainment theory to encompass the impact of social status on issues of college access and equity as well as academic performance and aspirations for educational attainment (McDonough & Antonio, 1996; Nordhaug, 1987; Sewell & Shaw, 1967; Sugland, 1993).

Status attainment models that have examined aspirations of African Americans have found racial/ethnic differences regarding the relationship of predictor variables with attainment for this group in comparison to their White peers (Carter, 1999a, 1999b). Race and gender are among those ascribed characteristics that bear influence on the educational and occupational attainment of adults (Sewell, Haller, & Ohlendorf, 1970; Sewell & Shaw, 1967). In regard to the status attainment theory, race and gender are issues as underprivileged persons aspire to become college-educated. It is questionable whether equal opportunity and distributive justice has been achieved given the disproportionate stratification of disadvantaged African American, Hispanic and White students in community colleges (Brint & Karabel, 1989a). Irrespective of the high concentration of students of color, the present state of inequality is perpetuated as community college students are often disregarded in policy debates regarding diversity initiatives such as affirmative action in college admissions (Chang, 1996).

Racial and gender disparities continue to exist within higher education roughly 30 years after the initiation of affirmative action. Issues of educational and social inequality continue to be of concern in American society as formal education has acted as a social stratifier, inhibiting the upward mobility of the disenfranchised (Alexander, 1988; Perrucci, 1967). Within a broader theoretical context, social stratification has been modernized by promotion of competitiveness, selectivity, and meritocratic rewards based on strict numerical standards (Husen, 1987). Will the retrenchment of affirmative action in college admissions preserve rather than correct social stratification in higher education? A college education has been one way for students to gain status in American society. According to Blau and Duncan (1967), "the American occupational structure is largely governed by universalistic criteria of performance and achievement, with the notable exception of the influence of race" (p. 241). As we enter the 21st century, the close relationship between educational attainment and occupational achievement continues.

Persell (1977) argued that the inequality of society's social structure legitimates uneven access and breeds disparities in educational and occupational attainment among the disenfranchised. Status attainment theory is adapted to determine whether two-year students desiring a bachelor's degree feel affirmative action should be retained in college admissions.

Summary

Very little is known about the aspirations of community college students relative to affirmative action. Given the primary educational context of two-year African American, Hispanic, and White students, it is important to gauge the attitudes of students toward affirmative action in college admissions. Ethier & Deaux (1990, 1994) contend that if a particular institutional context (i.e., community college) supports an individual's group identification, what happens when he or she moves out of that context and into another (i.e., four-year college or university)? When considering the group identification of community college students, particularly students of color, it is important to consider how the transfer function promotes movement from two-year to four-year institutions. It is equally important to think about how African American, Hispanic and White community college baccalaureate aspirants view affirmative action in college admissions relative to issues of access, their educational goals and future educational attainment.

Assessment of the possible influence factors such as self-interest, educational aspirations, racial affect, and other demographic characteristics on perceptions of affirmative action may reveal important discoveries regarding two-year students. The current dialogue pertaining to affirmative action in higher education has neglected students at the two-year level. In their book The Shape of the River, Bowen and Bok (1999) present the affirmative action debate as one occurring solely at selective, elite institutions of higher education. However, Adelman (1999b) challenges this presentation of student affirmative action issues by offering:

> When The Shape of the River appeared last fall, it was lauded for bringing a firm foundation of fact to debates about affirmative action. But did Bowen and Bok discuss all the data? In fact, they all but ignore important databases that provide a revealing picture of higher education and race. Left out of the River: The academic careers of the 90 percent of American students who attend nonselective institutions plus the impact of community colleges on Latino students and historically black colleges on African Americans. Bottom line: The Shape of the River may say more about how elites' (and elite institutions) maintain themselves than about how to serve the educational needs of minority students. (p. 45)

This chapter provided the historical and socio-political context of affirmative action in higher education. The current dialogue has largely focused on the attitudes of four-year collegians toward affirmative action. The review illustrated that the national conversation regarding affirmative action has failed to include the perceptions of transfer-track students at two-year institutions. As baccalaureate aspirants, community college students may have similar or very different notions from their four-year peers pertaining to the use of affirmative action in college admissions. This study is unique given the proportional enrollment of disadvantaged and underrepresented students at community colleges that have educational objectives that exceed degrees conferred at the two-year level. On that account, the study provides information for understanding community college baccalaureate aspirants attitudes during a period of retrenchment on affirmative action efforts in college admissions.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to examine the attitudes of community college students toward affirmative action in college admissions. This study attempts to generate information regarding levels of support or resistance toward affirmative action among two-year students in relationship to student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics. This chapter is presented in eight sections: (a) conceptual framework, (b) research questions, (c) research design, (d) population and sample, (e) instrumentation and data collection, (f) variables in the study, (g) data management, and (h) method of analysis.

Conceptual Framework

The process of societal stratification (also referred to as status attainment) has nearly dominated theoretical research approaches in sociology of education since the 1980s (Haller, 1982). Stratification systems justify the maintenance of the existing social order. Within the literature, status attainment is an analytic framework that assists in contextualizing social mobility (Breiger, 1990). Social mobility of individuals is affected by hierarchical societal structures that facilitate access and resource allocation that, in turn, impact upon status attainment (Lin, 1990).

Status attainment theory remains one of the leading social psychological models of educational and occupational attainment (Sewell, Haller, & Portes, 1994). The modification of one's status in the context of American society is challenging due to the pervasive social structure. Positioning within the social structure is often associated with family background, family structure, level of income, and education. Stratification in higher education encompasses the differentiation of student groups, social classes, institutional levels, ideologies, and norms (Verdugo, 1995). Racial stratification, as linked to educational and social status attainment, is important to the extent that attainment hinges on opportunities for upward mobility that are often affected by a system of benefits and drawbacks (Blau, Duncan, & Tyree, 1994). Hence, minorities and the disenfranchised are negatively affected by societal stratification as reflected by disparities in educational and early occupational attainment (Sewell, Haller, & Portes, 1994).

When differentials in resources and opportunities increase, one's position of origin for status attainment becomes increasingly important as well (Lin, 1990). Social stratification in society is defined by its parameters or "any criterion implicit in the social distinctions people make in their social interaction" (Blau, 1975 p. 221). As applied to this study, student background characteristics such as race/ethnicity, gender, age, parent's highest level of education, and annual family income illustrate the parameters that are thought to contribute to differentiation in social structure and have an effect on people's status attainment.

Status attainment theory builds upon American reasoning regarding individualism and social inequality (Grant, Horan, & Watts-Warren, 1994). Researchers contend that the application of status attainment models is readily expandable and flexible enough to include other characteristics of individuals such as educational experiences (i.e., measures of ability) and social psychological characteristics as reflected in measures of self-interest and racial affect (Grant, Horan, & Watts-Warren, 1994; Nordhaug, 1987;

Perrucci, 1967). Educational aspiration (e.g., highest degree planned, chances of getting a bachelor's degree, and transfer intent); self-interest (i.e., high school grade point average, college choice, and concern about financing education); and racial affect variables (i.e., cross-race socialization, view of racial discrimination, promoting racial understanding) are embedded in the conceptual framework of this study as a means of operationalizing educational and psychosocial characteristics.

The benefits of participating in higher education have been linked to status attainment (Nordhaug, 1987). Perrucci (1967) offered that the effects of stratification and status attainment have been to preserve higher education as the main avenue for mobility. In this study, comprised solely of a sample of community college students, social stratification is reflected in the proportion of racial/ethnic minorities, females and/or low-income students enrolled at two-year institutions, well beyond those at four-year colleges and universities (Karabel, 1986; Trent, 1986). Status attainment theory would suggest that the likelihood of obtaining a baccalaureate degree is decreased among minority, low–income community college students, raising the question of how receptive community college students are toward affirmative action in college admissions. This question is especially pertinent at a time when affirmative action policies are subject to major public debate. Studies of student attitudes toward affirmative action have largely focused on students attending selective four-year institutions (Basten, Cole, Maestas, & Mason, 1997; Chang, 1996; Meader, 1998; Smith, 1996). This study attempts to better understand the characteristics of students of two-year institutions and their attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions.

Conceptualization and Measurement

In clarifying and identifying the conceptual framework, Chapter One defined terminology and concepts of interest in this study. Chapter Two extended the conceptualization of what the researcher wanted to study through an extensive review of related literature. The graphical representation in Figure 1 of the conceptual framework seeks to further identify and explicate the concepts being measured in this study.

This framework attempts to apply concepts of status attainment theory (i.e., race/ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, academic preparedness, and educational aspirations) in explaining the odds of affirmative action support or resistance in college admissions. Figure 1 suggests that the influence of background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, and racial affect may influence student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. It also assumes that initial stratification of students in two-year institutions could add to the explanation of variance in the dependent variable, helping to explain student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions.

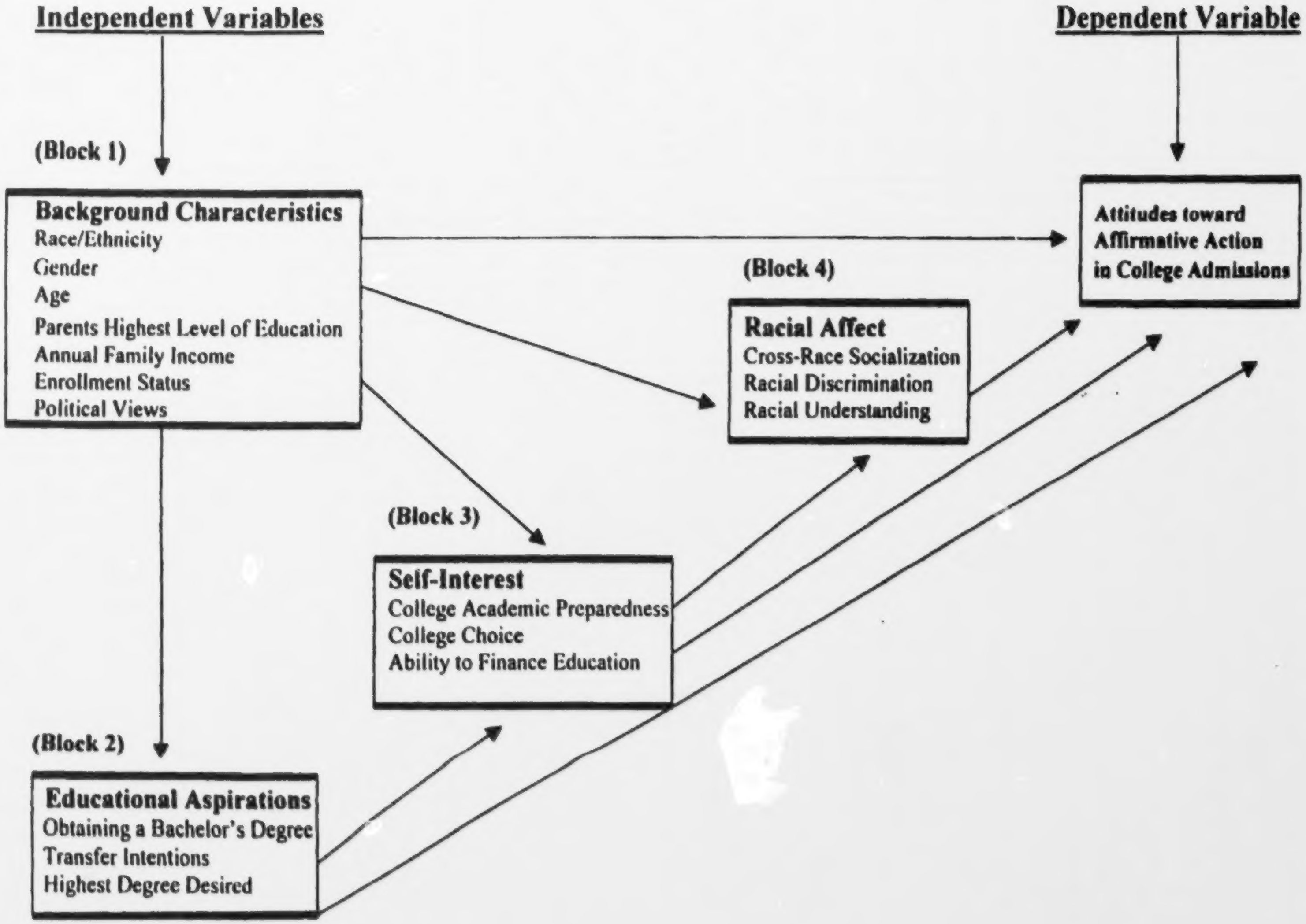
Independent Variables
Dependent Variable
(Block 1)
Background Characteristics
Race/Ethnicity
Gender
Age
Parents Highest Level of Education
Annual Family Income
Enrollment Status
Political Views
(Block 2)
Educational Aspirations
Obtaining a Bachelor's Degree
Transfer Intentions
Highest Degree Desired
(Block 3)
Self-Interest
College Academic Preparedness
College Choice
Ability to Finance Education
(Block 4)
Racial Affect
Cross-Race Socialization
Racial Discrimination
Racial Understanding
Attitudes toward
Affirmative Action
in College Admissions

Figure 1. Conceptual model.

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In determining the probability that two-year students favor the use of affirmative action in admissions rather than oppose it based on all the independent variables of interest, the following will be estimated as the final logistic regression equation.

Let p_i be the probability of student support for abolishing affirmative action in college admission.

$$\log[p_i / (1 - p_i)] = B_0 + B_1\mathrm{Sc}_i + B_2\mathrm{Ea}_i + B_3\mathrm{Se}_i + B_4\mathrm{Ra}_i + e$$

Where b_1= the partial slope of attitude toward affirmative action in college admissions on student background variables, while controlling for all other independent variables

b_2= the partial slope of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions on educational aspiration variables while controlling for all other independent variables

b_3= the partial slope of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions on self-interest variables while controlling for all other independent variables

b_4= the partial slope of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions on racial affect variables while controlling for all other independent variables

e= represents the portion of two-year student attitudes toward affirmative action that cannot be accounted for by the independent variables proposed in the model

The above equation represents the final logistic model for analysis, whereby the notation represents the variables of interest with regard to conceptual grouping.

Abbreviation	Variable
Sc	Student Background Characteristics
Ea	Educational Aspirations
Se	Self-Interest
Ra	Racial Affect

Figure 2. Variable abbreviations for final logistic regression equation.

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Research Questions

Reiterating the research questions shown in Chapter One, the following questions were addressed in this study:

1. How do two-year students vary in regard to affirmative action attitudes in college admissions and the independent variables, (i.e., student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics) according to race/ethnicity?
2. To what extent are the independent variables associated with student attitudes toward affirmative action for each racial/ethnic group?
3. To what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree do educational aspirations, then self-interest, and finally racial affect, add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?
4. For two-year students who intend to transfer and obtain a bachelor's degree or higher, to what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree does self-interest, then racial affect add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?

Research Design

This study is ex post facto as it involves determining what factors are associated with certain behaviors, conditions, or outcomes in reference to existing variables (Best & Kahn, 1993). Studies that are descriptive and exploratory in nature commonly utilize a cross-sectional research design (Babbie, 1998). A cross-sectional study refers to research conducted at a particular point in time. Cross-sectional research studies gather information from various groups of people at different developmental stages (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996; Krathwohl, 1993; Vogt, 1993). This research involves data collection from a cross-section of a two-year college student population. The source of data for the study is from the 1996 Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP). Similar to national or state samples frequently archived for secondary analysis by others with different research objectives, the researcher conducted a secondary analysis with CIRP data. More specifically, secondary analysis refers to the reanalysis of data that were not gathered and prepared by the primary researcher. (Babbie, 1998).

Conducted since 1966, sponsorship of CIRP is provided from the American Council on Education and University of California at Los Angeles Higher Education Research Institute. CIRP freshman surveys are designed to evaluate the importance of college on students (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1996). The CIRP database for four-year college students is most notable in the field of higher education, cited widely including in the *Almanac of the Chronicle of Higher Education*. For four-year college students, CIRP conducts longitudinal follow-up studies at two and four year intervals following college entrance. Less evident in the literature, but still highly valuable, CIRP collects cross-sectional data pertaining to two-year college students and those data are the focus of this study.

Population and Sample

Approximately 15% of American colleges and universities were sampled by CIRP between 1966 and 1970. By 1971, every institution of higher learning with an entering freshman class that responded to the U. S. Department of Education's Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS) was invited to participate in the CIRP freshman survey (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1996). The national population of higher education institutions for 1996 was 2,696. Four hundred and ninety-four or 18% of institutions in the national population elected to participate in the 1996 CIRP Survey.

The sample for this study was initially defined by selecting those who first enrolled in 1996 as two-year college students. Table 1 displays public and private two-year institutions at which student respondents were enrolled (see Figure 2 in Appendix A for State Mapping of participating institutions). The total sample consisted of 22,372 first-time, full-time public and private two-year college respondents that identified as African American, American Indian, Asian American, Caucasian, and/or Hispanic. The sample was further limited by restricting the analysis to include only African American, Hispanic and White two-year students (N = 20,339).

In providing a normative picture of two-and four-year students, CIRP selects only institutions awarding two-year degrees to be among those included in their national norms sample. Excluded from the sample are proprietary, special vocational and semiprofessional postsecondary schools (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1996). Institutions providing a representative sample of the first time, full time students are included in the norms.

CIRP only included in the norms those two-year colleges that provided freshman responses from at least 50% of their first-time full-time students. Thus, the institutions in the norm group provided more complete data. The number of two-year institutions included in the national norms accounted for 48 institutions participating in the 1996

CIRP survey providing an unweighted sample of 10,866 students (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1996). In attempting to obtain an adequate sample size for conducting multivariate analyses for this study, data from participating institutions not reported in the norms – institutions providing responses from less than 50% of first-time, full-time students were included in this study. Thus, the total sample for this study was 20,339 (unweighted) first time, full-time freshmen that were African American, Hispanic, or White, representing 73 two-year institutions.

Table 1

1996 CIRP Participating Institutions by Norm Group, State, and Public or Private Control

Institution	Norm Group	State	Control
Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College	Yes	GA	Public
Adirondack Community College	Yes	NY	Public
Bainbridge College	Yes	GA	Public
Bronx Community College	No	NY	Public
Chattahoochee Valley State Community College	No	AL	Public
Chesapeake College	Yes	MD	Public
Citrus College	No	CA	Public
Community College of Denver	No	CO	Public
Coconino Community College	No	AZ	Public
College of the Canyons	No	CA	Public
College of the Sequioas	No	CA	Public
Dyersburg State Community College	No	TN	Public

(table continues)

Table 1 (continued)

Institution	Norm Group	State	Control
Eastern Wyoming College	Yes	WY	Public
Floyd College	No	GA	Public
Fredrick Community College	No	MD	Public
Fresno City College	No	CA	Public
Harrisburg Area Community College	Yes	PA	Public
Hartnell Community College	Yes	CA	Public
Highland Community College	Yes	IL	Public
Independence Community College	Yes	KS	Public
James Sprunt Community College	Yes	NC	Public
Jefferson Community College	Yes	NY	Public
Kauai Community College	No	HI	Public
Lake City Community College	Yes	FL	Public
Los Angeles Valley College	No	CA	Public
Louisiana State University-Eunice	Yes	LA	Public
Massachusetts Bay Community College	No	MA	Public
Mid Michigan Community College	No	MI	Public
Minnesota West Cmty & Tech College-Worth	Yes	MN	Public
Monroe Community College	No	NY	Public
Mount Wachusetts Community College	Yes	MA	Public
North Shore Community College	No	MA	Public

(table continues)

Table 1 (continued)

Institution	Norm Group	State	Control
Northeast Texas Community College	Yes	TX	Public
Northern Essex Community College	Yes	MA	Public
Northwest Arkansas Community College	Yes	AR	Public
Onondaga Community College	No	NY	Public
Quinebaug Valley Community-Technical College	No	CT	Public
Quinsigamond Community College	No	MA	Public
Rainy River Community College	No	MN	Public
San Diego City College	No	CA	Public
SUNY College of Technology-Alfred	Yes	NY	Public
SUNY College of Technology-Delhi	No	NY	Public
Tallahassee Community College	Yes	FL	Public
Texas State Tech College-Sweetwater	Yes	TX	Public
Texas State Tech College-Waco	Yes	TX	Public
University of Pittsburgh-Greensburg	Yes	PA	Public
University of Pittsburgh-Titusville	Yes	PA	Public
University of South Carolina-Union	Yes	SC	Public
University of Wisconsin-Centers	Yes	WI	Public
Washtenaw Community College	No	MI	Public
Andrew College	Yes	GA	Private

(table continues)

Table 1 (continued)

Institution	Norm Group	State	Control
Bethany Lutheran College	Yes	MN	Private
Brevard College	Yes	NC	Private
College of Aeronautics	Yes	NY	Private
Dean College	Yes	MA	Private
Emmanuel College	Yes	GA	Private
Fisher College	Yes	MA	Private
Florida College	Yes	FL	Private
Holy Cross College	Yes	IN	Private
MacCormac Junior College	Yes	IL	Private
Manor Junior College	Yes	PA	Private
Martin Methodist College	Yes	TN	Private
Midway College	Yes	KY	Private
Mount Saint Mary's College	Yes	CA	Private
Newbury College	Yes	MA	Private
Presentation College	No	SD	Private
Springfield College	No	IL	Private
St. Mary's College	Yes	NC	Private
Suomi College	Yes	MI	Private
Valley Forge Military College	Yes	PA	Private
Villa Maria College of Buffalo	Yes	NY	Private
Waldorf College	Yes	IA	Private
Wisconsin Lutheran College	Yes	WI	Private

Source: Sax, L. J., Astin, A. W., Korn, W. S., & Mahoney, K. M. (1996). The American Freshman: National Norms for Fall 1996. Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

The CIRP Freshman Survey (see Appendix A) is an annual questionnaire administered by the Higher Education Research Institute at the University of California, Los Angeles. For 34 years, CIRP has generated data and produced a variety of reports pertaining to American higher education. The Student Information Form (SIF), serving as the CIRP survey instrument, contains a wide array of items pertaining to family background, personal characteristics, educational aspirations, and expectations (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1996).

The survey was designed to gauge student attitudes, opinions and perceptions relative to their academic experiences. The data generated provides a normative profile of American freshmen intended to be helpful to college administrators, faculty, educational researchers, and policy analysts (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1996). The instrument is revised on an annual basis to remain current with educational issues and concerns. The text of particular questions may be altered to more accurately elicit desired information and student opinions. For example, during 1982-1984 and in 1992, CIRP asked whether "Students from disadvantaged social backgrounds should be given preferential treatment in college admissions," and the item "affirmative action in college admission should be abolished" did not appear on the student information form prior to 1996. Further, CIRP had eight racial/ethnic categories to select from prior to 1997, but during 1997 and thereafter, students were able to select from thirteen different racial backgrounds as finer distinctions were made for Hispanics and persons of Asian descent.

Freshman students attending various colleges and universities complete the CIRP instrument primarily during the first few weeks of their first term. The higher education institutions participating in the CIRP Freshman Survey differ in regards to institutional characteristics. The sample of institutions is distributed across institutional race, type, control, and enrollment (Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1996).

Variables in the Study

The Freshman Survey provided data for the variables explored in this study. Attitude toward affirmative action in college admissions served as the dependent variable. "Affirmative action in college admissions should be abolished" was measured on a 4-point scale from 1 = "Disagree strongly", 2 = "Disagree somewhat", 3 = "Agree somewhat", and 4 = "Agree strongly". The dependent variable was recoded as a dichotomous variable (0 = disagree and 1 = agree) to conduct the logistic regression using SPSS 9.0.

A total of 20 independent variables were selected for use in this study. These independent variables were organized into five categories: (1) student background characteristics, (2) educational aspirations, (3) self-interest, (4) racial affect, and (5) institutional characteristics. Table 2 provides a list of the variables of interest in the 1996 CIRP Survey.

Table 2

Dependent and Independent Variables of Interest in the CIRP Survey

Category/Variable	Scale/Coding
Affirmative action in college admissions should be abolished (DV)	Recoded into dummy variable 0=disagree; 1=agree
Background Characteristics (Block 1) Racial/Ethnic Identification	Created a series of dummy variables do if (race 2 = 2) compute as African American = 1 else compute African American = 0 do if (race 5 = 2 or race 6 = 2 or race 7 = 2 and race 2 = 1) compute as Hispanic, non-African American = 1 else compute Hispanic = 0 do if (race 1 = 2 and race 2 = 1 and race 5 = 1 and race 6 = 1 and race 7 = 1) compute as White, non-African American, non-Hispanic = 1 else compute White = 0
Gender	Recoded 1 = 0 (Male) and 2 = 1 (Female)
Age	Recoded to three categories for descriptive analysis 1 = Under 18; 2 = 18 to 24; 3 = 25 and over; Recoded to midpoints for multivariate analysis (1 = 16, 2 = 17, 3 = 18, 4 = 19, 5 = 20, 6 = 22.5, 7 = 27, 8 = 34.5, 9 = 47, 10 = 55)
Parents' Annual Income	Parents' income is measured on a 14-point scale from less than $6,000 to $200,000 or more. Recoded into four categories for descriptive analysis: 1 = $14,999 and under; 2 = $15,000 to $29,999; 3 = $30,000 to $59,999; 4 = $60,000 or more; Recoded to midpoints for multivariate analysis (1 =3000, 2 = 7999, 3 = 12499, 4 = 17499, 5 = 22499, 6 = 27499, 7 = 34999, 8 = 44999, 9 = 54999, 10 = 67499, 11 = 87499, 12 = 12499, 13 = 174999, 14 = 200000)
Parents' educational attainment	1 = grammar school or less, 2 = some high school, 3 = high school graduate, 4 = postsecondary other than college, 5 = some college, 6 = college degree, 7 = some graduate school, and 8 = graduate degree. Collapsed mother and father's education reflecting highest educational attainment of either parent and recoded into number of years of school to adjust intervals (1 = 8, 2 = 10, 3 = 12, 4,5 = 14, 6 = 16, 7 = 17, 8 = 18)
Enrollment Status	part-time = 0 and full-time = 1

(table continues)

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Table 2 (continued)

Category/Variable	Scale/Coding
Political Views	1 = far right; 2 = conservative; 3 = middle of the road; 4 = liberal; 5 = far left
Educational Aspirations (Block 2) Get a bachelor's degree	1 = no chance; 2 = very little chance; 3 =some chance; 4 = very good chance
Transfer Intent	1 = no chance; 2 = very little chance; 3 = some chance; 4 = very good chance
Highest degree planned	Collapsed degrees and recoded into 0 = None; 1 = vocational certificate/associate; 1.5 = other; 2 = bachelor's or B.Div.;. 3 = master's; 4 = LL.B. or J.D.; 5 = Ph.D. or Ed.D; 6 = M.D., D.O.,D.D.S., D.V.M.
Self-Interest (Block 3) Academic Preparedness	1 = D; 2 = C; 3 = C+; 4 = B-; 5 = B; 6 = B+; 7 = A-; 8 = A or A+
College Choice	1 = first choice; 2 = second choice; 3 = third choice; 4 = less than third choice
Ability to finance education	1 = none; 2 = some; 3 = major
Racial Affect (Block 4) Cross-race socialization	3 = frequently; 2 = occasionally; 1 = not at all
Racial discrimination	1 = disagree strongly; 2 = disagree somewhat; 3 = agree somewhat; 4 = agree strongly
Racial understanding	1 = not important; 2 = somewhat important; 3 = very important; 4 = essential
Institutional Characteristics (Block 5)	
Institutional Race	Recoded into 2 = 1 (black) and 1 = 0 (white)
Institutional Control	Created dummy variable 2 = 0 (private), 1 = 1(public)
Institutional Size	1= very low; 2 = low; 3 = medium; 4 = high; 5 = very high
Institutional sex	single sex = 1 and coeducational = 0

Student Background Characteristics

As previously stated, background characteristics are thought to contribute to differentiated educational outcomes and subsequent status attainment (Grant, Horan, & Watts-Warren, 1994; Nordhaug, 1987; Perrucci, 1967). Independent variables in this study reflect student attributes including race/ethnicity, gender, age, parents' highest level of education, annual family income, enrollment status, and political ideologies. For the purposes of this study, race/ethnicity was restricted to African American, Hispanic and White students because these are the three largest racial/ethnic groups attending community colleges. According to the CIRP racial/ethnic categories, White/Caucasian was coded as race 1 and African American/Black was coded as race 2. CIRP had separate categories for Mexican American (race 5), Puerto Rican (race 6), and other Latino (race 7). However, in this study, Mexican American, Puerto Rican, and other Latino were collapsed into one group operationally referring to Hispanic students. Gender was a dichotomous variable with male = 0 and female = 1. Age was recoded into three categories for the descriptive analyses as: 1 = Under 18; 2 = 18 to 24; 3 = 25 and over. Age was recoded to the midpoints for conducting logistic regression equations (see Table 2).

As self-reported incomes for students are absent in the 1996 CIRP Freshman Survey, parents' highest level of education and annual family income reflect socioeconomic status (SES). Parents' educational attainment was measured on an eight-point scale separately for mother and father, ranging from 1 = grammar school or less, 2 = some high school, 3 = high school graduate, 4 = postsecondary other than college, 5 = some college, 6 = college degree, 7 = some graduate school, and 8 = graduate degree.

However, mother and fathers' educational attainment was recoded into a different variable to reflect highest years of education for either parent. Highest years of education for either parent was coded to the number of years of school to adjust intervals (1 = 8, 2 = 10, 3 = 12, 4,5 = 14, 6 = 16, 7 = 17, 8 = 18).

Parents' annual income was measured on a 14-point scale from less than $6,000 to $200,000 or more (see questions 26 and 27 in Appendix A). Similar to the age variable, income was recoded into four categories (1 = $14,999 and under; 2 = $15,000 to $29,999; 3 = $30,000 to $59,999; 4 = $60,000 or more) for cross-tabulations and was recoded to the midpoints for correlational analyses (see Appendix C) and logistic regression analyses. A dummy variable was created for enrollment status where 0 = part-time and 1 = full-time. The last student background characteristic, political ideologies, was anchored 1 = far right; 2 = conservative; 3 = middle of the road; 4 = liberal; and 5 = far left.

Educational Aspirations Measures

Research has suggested that student characteristics (i.e., pre-college attributes such as gender, age, and family income) may affect educational aspirations, degree plans and attainment (Astin, 1993; Brint & Karabel, 1989a; Carter, 1999a, 1999b). Educational aspirations as represented in this study consist of three independent variables. The first item asks, "What is your best guess as to the chances that you will get a bachelor's degree (B.A., B.S., etc.)": 1 = "No chance", 2 = "Very little chance", 3 = "Some chance", and 4 = "Very good chance". The second question asks "What is your best guess as to the chances that you will transfer to another college before graduating": 1 = "No chance", 2 = "Very little chance", 3 = "Some chance", and 4 = "Very good chance" (see survey question 38 in Appendix A). While this item reasonably appears to measure transfer intent, the item does not distinguish *vertical or horizontal* transfer. This is important as two-year college students indicating intent to transfer may or may not intend to transfer to a four-year institution in pursuit of a bachelor's degree.

The last item inquires, "What is the highest academic degree that you intend to obtain?": "None", "Vocational certificate", "Associate", "Bachelor's degree", "Master's degree", "Ph.D. or Ed.D.", "M.D., D.O., D.D.S., or D.V.M.", "LL.B. or J.D.", or "Other" (see survey question 17 in Appendix A). This item was recoded into the following categories: 0 = None; 1 = vocational certificate/associate; 1.5 = other; 2 = bachelor's; 3 = master's; 4 = LL.B. or J.D.; 5 = Ph.D. or Ed.D; 6 = M.D., D.O.,D.D.S., D.V.M.

Students identifying "other" as their highest degree planned were retained for multivariate analyses to curb the total number of cases rejected due to missing data. It was also the intent of the researcher to include students that classified "other" under the assumption that a degree was desired that may not be equivalent to the response options provided. Moreover, it was a primary interest of the researcher to assess two-year student aspirations for the baccalaureate and beyond.

Self-Interest Measures

With the exception of ability to finance education, variables selected to reflect self-interest were based on similar constructs of self-interest operationalized by Sax and Arredondo (1999) in studying attitudes toward affirmative action in college admission with four-year CIRP Survey respondents. These variables were selected as measures of self-interest in this study as they were thought to reflect what drives student opinion and motivation in deciding whether affirmative action in college admissions maximizes benefits to themselves or their racial/ethnic group.

It was theoretically assumed that self-interest would influence attitudes toward affirmative action and what may be perceived to benefit oneself and racial/ethnic or social group. The first variable, academic preparedness, was measured by high school grade-point average (GPA) coded 1 = "D", 2 = "C", 3 = "B", and 4 = "A". The next item measured self-interest asked "Is this college your 1 = "first choice", 2 = "second choice", 3 = "third choice", or 4 = "less than third choice" (item # 14). The last variable asked, "Do you have any concerns about your ability to finance your college education", 1 = "None (I am confident that I will have sufficient funds)", 2 = "Some (but I probably will have enough funds)", or 3 = "Major (not sure I will have enough funds to complete college)".

Racial Affect Measures

Previous studies addressing affirmative action have contended that racial affect is related to individuals' policy attitudes (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Chang, 1996; Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1993; Dovidio, Mann, & Gaertner, 1989). For this study, racial affect was measured by three variables that reflect student attitudes toward other racial/ethnic groups. Each of the racial affect variables was used exactly as coded in the CIRP dataset. The first variable, reflective of racial affect, concerned cross-race socialization. The question on the survey asked, "For the activities below, indicate which ones you did during the past year". The activity was "Socialized with someone of another racial/ethnic group". Respondents answered this item according to a three-point scale from 1 = "Frequently", 2 = "Occasionally", and 3 = "Not at all" (Appendix A - question 24). The second item, which probed students' perception of racial discrimination, stated "Racial discrimination is no longer a major problem in America", measured on a four-point scale, 1 = "Disagree strongly", 2 = "Disagree somewhat", 3 = "Agree somewhat", and 4 = "Agree strongly". Lastly, the remaining variable measuring racial affect stated, "Please indicate the importance of helping to promote racial understanding" and was anchored on a scale of 1 = " Not important", 2 = "Somewhat important", 3 = "Very important" or 4 = "Essential" (item 37).

Institutional Characteristics

Researchers have attempted to extend status attainment models asserting that higher learning institutions have some bearing on student aspirations and educational attainment (Astin, 1993; Brint & Karabel, 1989a, 1989b; Carter, 1999a, 1999b; Dougherty, 1987, 1988; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991). Additional information regarding institutional characteristics such as institutional race/ethnicity, institutional size, control, and institutional sex were obtained from the 1996 CIRP for use in this study. Institutional race/ethnicity referred to predominately White institutions (PWI) or predominately Black-serving colleges recoded into 0 = White and 1 = Black. Institutional size indicated student enrollment from very low to very high enrollment with 1 = very low; 2 = low; 3 = medium; 4 = high; 5 = very high. Institutional control indicated whether an institution was publicly or privately controlled and was coded as 0 = private and 1 = public. Institutional sex pertained to whether the institution was a single-sex institution or a coeducational college. Institutional sex was coded as 1 = male only, 2 = female only, 3 = coed, and 4 = coordinate. This variable was recoded to single sex (1, 2 = 1) and coeducational (3, 4 = 0).

Data Management

Data were obtained from the 1996 CIRP survey of first-time college freshmen from two- and four-year students during fall 1996. Data analysis began following consent from the UCLA Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) and official approval from the University of Illinois Institutional Review Board (IRB). All policies and procedures for the protection of human subjects at the University of Illinois were carefully followed. Due to the sensitivity of student background characteristics, the researcher did not have access to information identifying individuals. To insure individual confidentiality, the researcher adhered to HERI's policies prohibiting the use of student names and social security numbers.

A computer syntax program was created for use with SPSS to extract data on the variables of interest exclusively with a community college sample. Data were maintained and stored at UCLA, however, the researcher maintained a portable file. The data set includes demographic data such as age, race/ethnicity, and gender. The data set did not contain values for missing data, therefore this researcher dealt with missing data reporting sample size in each table.

Method of Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 9.0 software was used to execute the statistical analysis for the study. The analyses were restricted to $p \leq .01$ level of statistical significance due to the large sample size. The data analysis involved three stages: a) descriptive analysis, b) cross-tabulation tables and chi-square tests to determine statistically significant measures of association, and c) multivariate data analysis.

First, the descriptive analyses described two-year student attitudes toward affirmative action and the other independent variables according to race/ethnicity. The descriptive analyses included percentage distributions in order to gauge the spectrum of values or response categories for each variable in accordance to research question one. The second research question was analyzed conducting cross-tabulations. Since cross-tabulation is the most common measure of association among survey variables, a series of cross-tabulations tables were created (Alreck & Settle, 1995). The cross-tabulations showed affirmative action attitudes by each independent variable within each racial/ethnic group.

Research questions three and four were analyzed through multivariate analysis utilizing logistic regression. Conceptually similar to multiple regression, logistic regression does not assume that the dependent variable is a linear function of the independent variables (Glass & Hopkins, 1996). Logistic regression estimates odds ratios for each independent variable in the model. Logistic regression is appropriate for use with a dichotomous dependent variable, such as positive or negative attitudes toward affirmative action among two-year students (Pedhazur, 1997; Vogt, 1993). As applied to this study, the four-categorical dependent variable "attitude toward affirmative action in college admissions" was recoded as a dichotomous variable in order to conduct the logistic regression. The major research design for this study used a hierarchical framework for assessing the impact of independent variables on affirmative action attitudes in college admissions. One basic feature of the research design was controlling for student characteristics that may independently contribute to attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions.

The logistic regression model for research question 3, estimated relationships among 16 variables studied (See again Figure 1). The multivariate analysis consisted of four logistic regression equation runs. The first logistic regression equation tested for significant effects of student background characteristics on attitudes toward affirmative action. The second regression equation tested for the effects of educational aspirations, while incorporating student background characteristics. The third logistic model included an examination of self-interest measures, with student background characteristics and educational aspirations also included in the model. The fourth logistic equation run tested the effects of racial affect with student background characteristics, educational aspirations, and self-interest in the model. The fourth and last equation incorporated all variables of interest in the study (i.e., full model).

Logistic regression analyses were conducted separately for the entire sample, by gender, by race/ethnicity, and finally by transfer intent and baccalaureate aspirations. The models were estimated using block entry of variables in SPSS. Variables were ordered in the equation according to temporal order. Whereas, the third research question estimated four logistic regression models, the fourth research question estimated three models. Table 3 presents the CIRP variables of interest in relationship to the research questions posed and methods of analysis used in this study.

Table 3

Research Questions, Variables, and Methods of Analysis

Research Question	Variable	Item on Survey	Method of Analysis
1. How do two-year students vary in regard to affirmative action attitudes in college admissions and the independent variables according to race/ethnicity (i.e., student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics)?	• Affirmative action attitudes	31	Descriptive
	• Background Characteristics	1, 2, 4, 20, 25, 26, 34	
	• Educational aspirations	16, 38	
	• Self-interest	6, 13, 33	
	• Racial Affect	23, 31, 37	
	• Institutional characteristics	N/A	
2. To what extent are the independent variables associated with student attitudes toward affirmative action for each racial/ethnic group?	• Affirmative action attitudes	31	Cross-tabulations
	• Background Characteristics	1, 2, 4, 20, 25, 26, 34	
	• Educational aspirations	16, 38	
	• Self-interest	6, 13, 33	
	• Racial Affect	23, 31, 37	
	• Institutional characteristics	N/A	
3. To what extent do background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree do educational aspirations, then racial affect, and finally self-interest, add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?	• Affirmative action attitudes	31	Hierarchical Logistic Regression
	• Background Characteristics	1, 2, 4, 20, 25, 26, 34	
	• Educational aspirations	16, 38	
	• Self-interest	6, 13, 33	
	• Racial Affect	23, 31, 37	
4. For two-year students who intend to transfer and obtain a bachelor's degree or higher, to what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree does self-interest, then racial affect add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?	• Affirmative action attitudes	31	Hierarchical Logistic Regression
	• Background Characteristics	1, 2, 4, 20, 25, 26, 34	
	• Self-interest	6, 13, 33	
	• Racial Affect	23, 31, 37	

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CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents an overview of exploratory analyses as described in Chapter Three. Results of this study are detailed in five sections. First, descriptive analyses of student background characteristics and other variables of interest are presented. Second, percentage distributions are provided for the independent variables by racial/ethnic group. Third, cross-tabulations showing the degree of association between affirmative action attitudes and the independent variables are provided for each racial/ethnic group. Fourth, results from logistic regression models are reported for the entire sample, African American, Hispanic, White, male and female student groups. Finally, findings associated with logistic regression models are discussed for two-year college students who intend to transfer. This final section reports the results of the logistic regression analyses on attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for two-year students who aspire to the baccalaureate degree or beyond.

Descriptive Analysis of the Total Sample

In providing a portrait of student participants in this sample, percentages are presented for the variables studied. Table 4 provides a full description of the 1996 CIRP two-year college student respondents of interest. Over three-fourths of the student sample was White (n = 15,614), while 11.3% was Hispanic (n = 2,300) and approximately 12% (n = 2,425) was African American, representing a total sample size of 20,339. Overall, females represented the majority of the total sample comprising 55.4% of the students.

Table 4

Percentage Distributions of CIRP 1996 Variables of Interest

Variable	n	Percent
Racial/Ethnic Identification		
African American	2,425	11.9%
Hispanic	2,300	11.3
White	15,614	77.8
Gender	20,314	
Female		55.4
Age Group	20,241	
Under 18 years old		2.1
18 – 24 years old		80.8
25 years old and over		17.2
Annual Family Income	16,342	
$14,999 and under		17.0
$15,000 to $29,999		20.1
$30,000 to $59,999		34.7
$60,000 or more		17.2
Parental Educational Attainment	19,824	
Less than high school graduate		12.8
High school graduate		27.5
Some postsecondary		22.8
College degree		23.6
Some graduate school		1.8
Graduate degree		11.5
Enrollment Status	20,129	
Full-time		85.1
Political Views	17,848	
Far right		1.9
Conservative		20.5
Middle of the Road		54.0
Liberal		19.7
Far left		3.9

(table continues)

Table 4 (continued)

Variable	n	Percent
Get a bachelor's degree	18,282	
No chance		8.4%
Very little chance		10.5
Some chance		30.3
Very good chance		50.8
Transfer Intent	18,240	
No chance		32.9
Very little chance		19.6
Some chance		21.6
Very good chance		25.9
Highest degree planned	15,076	
None		2.1
Vocational certificate/Associate's degree		15.6
Bachelor's degree		33.8
Master's degree		32.1
Medical/Law		5.6
Ph.D. or Ed. D		8.2
Other		2.6
Academic Preparedness (H.S. GPA)	19,883	
A or A+		5.1
A-		7.8
B+		15.2
B		25.3
B-		15.3
C+		17.4
C		12.5
D		1.4
College Choice	20,114	
First choice		69.4
Second choice		19.3
Third choice		5.5
Less than third choice		5.7

(table continues)

Table 4 (continued)

Variable	n	Percent
Concern About Ability to Finance Education	19,079	
None		30.7%
Some		45.0
Major		24.3
Cross-race socialization	19,881	
Not at all		8.6
Occasionally		36.0
Frequently		55.4
Racial discrimination is not a problem	18,842	
Disagree strongly		47.7
Disagree somewhat		34.6
Agree somewhat		14.1
Agree strongly		3.7
Promoting Racial Understanding	18,311	
Not important		27.0
Somewhat important		39.1
Very important		23.1
Essential		10.8
Institutional race	19,436	
Predominately White		96.8
Institutional size	20,182	
Very low		.7
Low		21.9
Medium		24.3
High		51.9
Very high		1.3
Institutional control	20,117	
Public		85.1
Institutional sex	20,117	
Single-sex		2.3

Note (N = 20,339)

With regard to students' age, 2% of students were under 18 years of age with roughly 80% of students being of traditional college age, between 18-24 years old.

Correspondingly, 17% of students reported being 25 years old or older. Self-reported measures of annual family income revealed 34.7% of families were between $30,000 to $59,999. Twenty percent indicated annual family incomes between $15,000 to $29,999. However, parents earning under $15,000 and those with incomes of $60,000 or more each accounted for 17% of the sample.

In addressing the highest educational attainment of their parents, 27.5% of students had one or both parents who were high school graduates, but roughly 13% of students' parents had educational attainment less than high school. About 23% of parents had completed some college whereas 23.6% were college graduates and 11.5% of students reported parents' highest educational level as a graduate degree. In terms of their own enrollment in community colleges, the bulk of students (85%) indicated being full-time students.

For the overall sample, 54% of students indicated being bipartisan in that they were in the "middle of the road" in reference to their political views. However, 20.5% reported being conservative, while 19.7% said they were liberal. Less than 2% of students stated their political ideologies as being far right and around 4% referred to themselves as far left.

In conjunction with educational aspirations, over 50% of students stated there was a very good chance they would get bachelor's degrees, with another 30.3% reporting some chance they would earn a bachelor's degree. In the CIRP Freshman Survey students were asked if they intended to transfer to another college. Roughly 33% stated there was no chance that they would transfer and almost 20% reported very little chance of transferring. Accordingly, 47% of students indicated there was some to a very good chance they would transfer to another institution. One-third of students indicated they had no intentions to transfer, which may be attributed to over two-thirds of the sample attending their first choice college.

Over half of students reported having high school grade point averages (GPAs) in the B range, and over 67% reported academic preparedness of B- or better. Reinforcing findings regarding their chances of getting a bachelor's degree, the vast majority of students aspired to attain degrees beyond the two-year level. About one-third of them aspired to the baccalaureate as the highest degree planned, while another one-third aspired to attain master's degrees and almost 14% desired doctoral or professional degrees.

Nearly one-quarter of the students expressed a major concern about their ability to finance their education. Forty-five percent had some concerns over financing their education and 30.7% did not have any concerns regarding college costs. The overwhelming majority of students (97%) were enrolled at a predominately white two-year institution of higher learning, and 85% of the sample were enrolled at publicly controlled colleges. A little over half reported attendance at colleges with high enrollments, with about one-quarter at medium-sized and 21.9% and .7% of students at colleges with small or very small enrollments, respectively.

With respect to racial attitudes, only 27% of the students felt it was not important to promote racial understanding. Thirty-nine percent thought promoting racial understanding was somewhat important and roughly 34% of the students indicated that it was very important or essential. Fifty-five percent of the students frequently engaged in socializing with members of different racial/ethnic groups. Nevertheless, approximately

18% of the students agreed somewhat or strongly that racial discrimination was no longer a problem in society.

Descriptive Analyses by Racial/Ethnic Group

Research Question One: How do two-year students vary in regard to affirmative action attitudes in college admissions and the independent variables, (i.e., student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics) according to race/ethnicity?

In examining the independent variables of interest by race/ethnicity, Table 5 illustrates separate profiles of the two-year student sample for African Americans, Hispanics, and Whites. The number of cases are reported in parentheses for the descriptive statistics on each variable. The first column of the table identifies student background characteristics, while the other three columns report the percentage of each racial/ethnic group in each category.

With respect to background characteristics, over half of students in each racial/ethnic group were female and approximately three-fourths of students in each group were traditional age students. Roughly 37% of African American and Hispanic students reported annual family incomes below $15,000, whereas only 14% of White students reported the same level of annual family income. In regards to highest level of education, 9.2% of Whites, 18.6% African Americans and 41.9% of Hispanic students' parents educational attainment was less than high school completion. African American and White students were comparably enrolled full-time (86%), while slightly fewer Hispanic students (79.3%) attended college full-time.

Table 5

Background Characteristics of Two-Year Students by Race/Ethnicity

Variable	Race/Ethnicity		
	African American	Hispanic	White
Gender	(2,419)	(2,297)	(15,598)
Female	61.4%	55.3%	55.4%
Age Group	(2,412)	(2,287)	(15,542)
Under 18 years old	2.7	2.8	2.0
18 – 24 years old	74.4	79.0	80.9
25 years old and over	23.2	18.2	17.1
Annual Family Income	(1,818)	(1,859)	(12,665)
$14,999 and under	37.7	37.4	14.2
$15,000 to $29,999	27.5	25.2	19.4
$30,000 to $59,999	22.6	25.3	37.0
$60,000 or more	12.4	12.3	29.2
Parental Educational Attainment	(2,338)	(2,215)	(15,271)
Less than high school graduate	18.6	41.9	9.2
High school graduate	31.1	21.4	28.3
Some postsecondary	23.4	17.3	23.5
College degree	17.8	11.2	25.1
Some graduate school	1.4	1.2	1.9
Graduate degree	7.7	6.9	12.1
Enrollment Status	(2,391)	(2,276)	(15,462)
Full-time	86.3	79.3	85.8
Political Views	(2,070)	(1,922)	(13,856)
Far right	2.8	2.2	1.9
Conservative	16.7	17.5	20.8
Middle of the Road	47.9	48.9	54.6
Liberal	24.1	27.5	18.8
Far left	8.6	4.0	3.9

Lastly, with respect to background characteristics, students responded about their political views. About half of all students' political ideologies were middle of the road, with slightly more Whites identifying with this political view than the other two racial/ethnic groups. Only about 2% of students across all racial/ethnic groups stated that they were far right and another 16.7% of African American, 17.5% of Hispanic, and 20.8% of White students identified conservative. On the other hand, just about 4% of White and Hispanic students and 8.6% of African American students stated far left, while 24% of African Americans, 27.5% of Hispanics, and 18.8% of Whites identified with liberal political views.

Students' educational aspirations for baccalaureate degrees were very similar across all three racial/ethnic groups (see Table 6). More African American students than the other groups responded that there was no chance of transferring to another institution, whereas more White students than students of color felt that there was a very good chance of transferring to another institution. Approximately one-third of all students planned to receive a bachelor's degree as their highest educational attainment. Slightly higher proportions of Hispanic students than African American and Whites desired a vocational certificate or Associate's degree as their highest degree planned. Interestingly, a similar percentage of students from each racial/ethnic group (roughly one-third) aspired to a master's degree as their highest educational credential, and aspirations for more advanced degrees were also similar for the three groups.

Table 6

Educational Aspirations of Two-Year Students by Race/Ethnicity

Variable	Race/Ethnicity African American	 Hispanic	 White
Get a bachelor's degree	(2,128)	(1,952)	(14,202)
No chance	7.1%	8.2%	8.4%
Very little chance	9.4	9.3	10.6
Some chance	28.4	33.1	30.0
Very good chance	55.1	49.3	51.0
Transfer Intent	(2,120)	(1,934)	(14,186)
No chance	40.9	33.9	32.8
Very little chance	19.8	21.4	19.4
Some chance	19.7	23.3	21.4
Very good chance	19.7	21.5	26.5
Highest degree planned	(1,730)	(1,544)	(11,794)
None	3.0	2.8	2.1
Vocational certificate/Associate's degree	15.1	17.1	15.4
Bachelor's degree	30.0	29.3	34.3
Master's degree	32.6	32.1	32.1
Medical/Law	6.8	5.2	5.6
Ph.D. or Ed. D	9.7	9.6	8.0
Other	2.7	4.0	2.5

Looking at the self-interest variables, slightly larger percentages of African American students reported a high school grade point average (GPA) in the C to B- range than Hispanic and White students (see Table 7). A higher percentage of Hispanic and White students reported a high school GPA in the B to A/A+ range. Although the majority of all students attended their first choice college, a smaller percentage of African Americans reported attendance at first choice institutions than the other two groups. Moreover, 43% of African American and Hispanic students had some concerns about their ability to finance their education, and more White students had no concerns regarding financing college than the other groups.

Table 7

Self-Interest of Two-Year Students by Race/Ethnicity

	Race/Ethnicity		
Variable	African American	Hispanic	White
Academic Preparedness (H.S. GPA)	(2,352)	(2,215)	(15,316)
A or A+	2.7%	4.4%	5.2%
A-	4.2	6.2	8.0
B+	13.4	16.7	15.0
B	21.7	23.5	25.5
B-	16.8	14.5	15.5
C+	24.4	18.8	17.2
C	15.4	14.1	12.2
D	1.4	1.8	1.4
College Choice	(2,396)	(2,267)	(15,451)
First choice	59.5	67.7	69.7
Second choice	23.0	21.2	19.1
Third choice	9.3	5.4	5.6
Less than third choice	8.2	5.7	5.7
Concern About Ability to Finance Education	(2,239)	(2,063)	(14,777)
None	26.0	18.5	32.1
Some	43.9	42.5	45.3
Major	30.1	39.1	22.5

Table 8 depicts the distribution of two-year college students on racial affect items in the CIRP dataset by race/ethnicity. Greater percentages of students of color socialized frequently with members of other racial/ethnic groups than White students. Correspondingly, more African American and Hispanic students saw racial discrimination as a problem in society than did White students. Less than half of White students disagreed strongly that racial discrimination was no longer a problem in society compared to 57.5% of Hispanic and 73.5% African American students. In turn, promoting racial understanding was considered very important or essential to only 32.1% of White students compared to 60% of African American and 49.2% of Hispanic students.

Table 8

Two-Year Students' Racial Affect by Race/Ethnicity

Variable	Race/Ethnicity African American	 Hispanic	 White
Cross-race socialization	(2,339)	(2,223)	(15,319)
Not at all	10.4%	9.6%	8.5%
Occasionally	27.8	26.7	37.1
Frequently	61.8	63.7	54.4
Racial discrimination is not a problem	(2,187)	(2,085)	(14,570)
Disagree strongly	73.5	57.5	46.4
Disagree somewhat	15.8	26.0	35.7
Agree somewhat	7.3	12.1	14.3
Agree strongly	3.5	4.4	3.6
Promoting Racial Understanding	(2,107)	(1,956)	(14,248)
Not important	12.1	16.4	28.2
Somewhat important	28.7	34.4	39.7
Very important	35.0	32.4	22.0
Essential	24.3	16.8	10.1

Given the range of student responses on student background, educational aspirations, self-interest, and racial affect, it is important to probe student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. Well over two-thirds of African Americans

(72.4%) followed by Hispanics (68.7%) favored affirmative action compared to only 44.1% of Whites (see Table 9).

Table 9

Two-Year Students' Attitudes Toward Affirmative Action in College Admissions by Race/Ethnicity

Variable	Race/Ethnicity African American (n = 2,084)	 Hispanic (n = 1, 956)	 White (n = 13, 818)
Favor	72.4	68.7	55.9
Oppose	27.6	31.3	44.1

Summary

With respect to research question one, the findings illustrate:

- A slight majority of students in all three groups were female.
- Most students were of traditional college age, though African American students were slightly more likely than the other two groups to be 25 years and older.
- Nearly all students in all three groups reported being enrolled full-time.
- Over one-third of students of color were from families with annual incomes of $14,999 and under compared to less than 15% of White students at the same income level. Over 60% of White students were from families having an income of $30,000 and over compared to only about 35% of African Americans and 37% of Hispanic students having families at this same income level.

- Although all students reported similar levels of concern about their ability to finance a college education, higher percentages of students of color reported major concerns than White students.
- Parents of students of color were not as likely as White parents to have attended college beyond high school graduation. Over 60% of Hispanic students' parents were high school graduates or less, compared to nearly 50% of African American and 38% of Whites.
- African American students had degree aspirations and expectations that were slightly higher than Whites and Hispanics when asked about obtaining a bachelor's degree or plans for degrees beyond the baccalaureate.
- African American and Hispanic students held stronger beliefs that racial discrimination was a continued problem than White students.
- Students of color favored the role of affirmative action in college admissions more than White students.

Cross-Tabulations

Research Question Two: To what extent are the independent variables associated with student attitudes toward affirmative action for each racial/ethnic group?

Table 10 portrays the results of two-way cross-tabulations for the independent variables with affirmative action attitudes in college admissions for each group (i.e., African American, Hispanic, and White students). Chi-square nonparametric tests were conducted to determine the level of association between affirmative action attitudes in college admissions and the independent variables. For tables generated by SPSS and

Table 10

Two-Year Students' Disagreement with Abolishing Affirmative Action by the Independent Variables for each Racial/Ethnic Group

	Race/Ethnicity		
Variable	African American	Hispanic	White
Gender	(2,079)***	(1,954)***	(13,807)***
Female	74.9%	72.5%	60.3%
Male	68.3	63.9	45.4
Age Group	(2,073)**	(1,944)	(13,759)***
Under 18	69.2	64.4	51.2
18 to 24	70.9	67.7	52.8
25 and over	78.5	73.7	57.4
Parental Educational Attainment	(2,036)	(1,907)	(13,666)***
Grade School or less	75.6	72.8	58.5
Some high school	71.4	67.6	57.3
High school graduate	72.6	67.4	57.2
Some postsecondary	72.3	65.8	53.0
College degree	74.0	66.7	50.8
Some graduate school	71.4	75.0	46.6
Graduate degree	70.2	68.9	49.6
Annual Family Income	(1,638)	(1,650)	(11,635)***
$14,999 and under	73.1	70.9	60.2
$15,000 to $29,999	75.9	68.9	55.2
$30,000 to $59,999	67.1	69.4	51.7
$60,000 or more	73.6	60.5	49.8
Enrollment Status	(2,057)	(1,937)	(13,694)
Full-time	72.1	68.0	53.3
Part-time	74.5	71.5	53.9
Political Views	(1,898)	(1,779)	(12,866)***
Far right	71.4	51.4	35.5
Conservative	73.6	67.0	45.
Middle of the Road	72.2	69.1	55.8
Liberal	73.7	71.3	56.2
Far left	70.1	67.6	56.2

(table continues)

Table 10 (continued)

	Race/Ethnicity		
Variable	African American	Hispanic	White
Get a bachelor's degree	(1,933)	(1,802)	(13,108)***
No chance	73.7%	69.1%	57.6%
Very little chance	65.9	67.9	59.3
Some chance	70.2	68.6	54.6
Very good chance	74.8	68.1	51.1
Transfer Intent	(1,928)	(1,784)	(13,070)***
No chance	73.3	70.7	57.4
Very little chance	75.4	68.4	54.6
Some chance	68.3	65.3	52.5
Very good chance	72.1	67.6	49.5
Highest degree planned	(1,513)	(1,337)	(10,536)***
None	57.4	70.6	54.2
Vocational certificate/ Associate's degree	69.9	68.2	57.9
Bachelor's degree	71.1	66.8	52.4
Master's degree	74.6	67.7	51.3
Medical/Law	78.4	69.4	45.5
Ph.D. or Ed. D	78.1	71.7	47.5
Other	75.0	67.3	55.9
Academic Preparedness (H.S. GPA)	(2,025)***	(1,899)	(13,599)***
A or A+	80.4	74.1	48.7
A-	74.7	69.4	47.2
B+	76.6	69.8	52.6
B	76.8	71.0	54.4
B-	74.9	64.8	55.3
C+	66.5	70.0	56.0
C	68.8	64.3	53.3
D	71.0	58.1	54.3
College Choice	(2,062)	(1,933)	(13,705)***
First choice	73.1	69.3	54.5
Second choice	72.2	70.6	52.6
Third choice	70.9	59.3	47.6
Less than third choice	68.3	61.3	50.0

(table continues)

Table 10 (continued)

Variable	Race/Ethnicity		
	African American	Hispanic	White
Concern About Ability to Finance Education	(2,004)	(1,865)	(13,447)
None	69.6	66.4	51.8
Some	75.2	69.7	54.6
Major	71.4	68.5	54.0
Cross-race socialization	(2,045)	(1,927)	(13,695)
Not at all	65.9%	63.2%	53.7%
Occasionally	71.8	71.2	53.1
Frequently	73.9	68.5	53.7
Racial discrimination is not a problem	(2,074)***	(1,947)***	(13,761)***
Disagree strongly	76.4	73.7	57.8
Disagree somewhat	70.6	69.5	55.1
Agree somewhat	48.7	52.8	41.7
Agree strongly	41.1	44.8	35.8
Promoting Racial Understanding	(1,933)	(1,804)	(13,166)***
Not important	64.4	64.8	50.0
Somewhat important	73.6	69.2	54.3
Very important	72.5	70.5	55.8
Essential	75.0	65.9	58.3
Institutional race	(2,008)	(1,917)	(13,109)
Predominately White	72.5	68.8	53.6
Predominately Black	70.8	68.4	44.4
Institutional size	(2,062)	(1,937)	(13,719)
Very low	50.0	66.7	48.3
Low	71.6	69.8	55.7
Medium	72.8	69.0	54.6
High	73.0	68.7	52.3
Very High	59.1	50.0	54.7
Institutional control	(2,061)	(1,934)	(13,661)
Public	72.3	68.9	53.5
Private	72.8	67.7	54.3

(table continues)

Table 10 (continued)

Variable	Race/Ethnicity		
	African American	Hispanic	White
Institutional sex	(2,061)	(1,934)	(13,661)
Single-sex	73.8	72.1	54.3
Coeducational	72.3	68.7	53.6

Note $^{**}p \leq .01$; $^{***}p \leq .001$

select graphical representations of cross-tabulations see Appendix B. In Appendix C, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients are presented for the relationships between all variables in the study. The correlations are shown for the total sample as well as for each racial/ethnic group.

Background Characteristics

Looking first at background characteristics, results illustrate that the degree of association between gender and support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions was statistically significant for each racial/ethnic group (African Americans $\chi^2 = 10.697$ df = 1, p = .001; Hispanics $\chi^2 = 16.854$; df = 1, p = .000; and Whites $\chi^2 = 306.291$, df = 1, p = .000). Overall, fewer males in each racial/ethnic group supported retaining affirmative action in college admissions than women (see Table 10). The degree of association between age and attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions was statistically significant for African Americans ($\chi^2 = 10.710$, df = 2, p = .01) and Whites ($\chi^2 = 15.504$, df = 2, p = .000), but not for Hispanics. For these two groups, support for affirmative action (i.e., disagreement with abolishing affirmative action) increased with age. The degree of association of parental educational attainment and attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions was statistically significant for Whites only ($\chi^2 = 54.291$, df = 6, p = .000). Interestingly, support for abolishing affirmative action among Whites was lowest among students who had parents with grade school or less education, some high school, or high school diplomas. Support for abolishing affirmative action continued increase as parental education increased for White students.

There was variation in the number of students supporting the dismantling of affirmative action in college admissions by annual family income for the racial/ethnic groups. The degree of association between annual family income and attitudes toward affirmative action was statistically significant at the $p \leq .01$ level for Whites ($\chi^2 = 47.886$, df = 3, p = .000), but not other groups. Overall, lower income White students were supportive of affirmative action more than affluent White students. Roughly one-half of White students from families with annual incomes $30,000 or over disagreed with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. By comparison, from two-thirds to three-fourths of African American students and about two-thirds of Hispanic students at each income level supported affirmative action.

The degree of association between enrollment status and abolishing affirmative action in college admissions was not statistically significant for any racial/ethnic group. As for the association of affirmative action and political views, a higher percentage of far right and conservative White students favored abolishing affirmative action in college admissions than did far left and liberal White students. White students' support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions increased as political views became more conservative ($\chi^2 = 124.881$, df = 4, p =.000). Among those who espoused conservative political views, less than one-half of White students (45.4%) favored affirmative action as compared to 73.6% of African American and 67% of Hispanic students. Although the association of political views with favoring abolishing affirmative action in college admissions was not statistically significant for Hispanic and African American students, far-right Hispanic students were slightly more likely to support abolishing affirmative action than conservative, middle of the road, and more liberal Hispanics.

Educational Aspirations

With regard to educational aspirations, Whites who stated there was some or a very good chance of getting a bachelor's degree were more likely to agree with abolishing affirmative action than were Whites who thought they had no chance or very little chance of getting a bachelor's degree. Chi-square analyses indicated statistically significant results for White students ($\chi^2 = 44.623$, df = 3, p = .000), implying students' outlook on obtaining baccalaureate degrees was associated with their attitude toward affirmative action in college admissions. There was no significant association between attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions and aspirations for a bachelor's degree for Hispanic and African American students.

Large percentages of African American and Hispanic students favored affirmative action in college admissions regardless of transfer intentions. The chi-square test found the association of transfer intent and attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions statistically significant for White students only ($\chi^2 = 51.552$, df = 3, p = .000). About one-half of Whites specifying some or very good chances of transferring supported affirmative action in college admissions, while a slightly larger percentage (57%) supported it when they indicated no chance of transfer. Similarly, the association between highest degree planned and attitudes toward affirmative action was statistically significant for White students only ($\chi^2 = 41.128$, df = 6, p =.000). Nearly 58% of White students who indicated vocational certificates or associate's degrees as their highest degree planned favored affirmative action in college admissions. White students planning to earn medical, law, or doctoral degrees were least supportive of affirmative action in college admissions.

Self-Interest

In examining the association of attitudes toward affirmative action with self-interest variables, statistically significant results were yielded for academic preparedness (i.e., high school GPA) for African Americans ($\chi^2 = 36.420$, df = 7, p =.000) and Whites ($\chi^2 = 20.223$, df = 7, p =.01). The overall pattern of results suggests that White students with lower grades (e.g., B and below) favored affirmative action in college admissions slightly more than those with higher grades. Among African American students the reverse was true; students reporting GPAs of A and B were more favorable than those earning lower grades.

Attitude toward affirmative action was associated with college choice among White students, ($\chi^2 = 17.235$, df = 3, p =.001) but not students of color. The percentage of White students who favored retaining affirmative action in college admissions tended to decrease as the student reported being at a lower choice institution. Additionally, students reported their level of concern regarding ability to finance their college education, but no significant associations were found between concern about ability to finance education and attitudes toward affirmative action for any racial/ethnic group.

Racial Affect

Chi-square results show socialization outside of one's racial group not associated with attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for students in each racial/ethnic group. Students of color tended to support affirmative action more as they occasionally or frequently socialized with other racial/ethnic groups, but this finding was not statistically significant. The percentage of White students who favored affirmative action in college admissions was not associated with cross-race socializing.

The degree of association between support for abolishing affirmative action and the belief that racial discrimination is no longer a problem was statistically significant within each racial/ethnic group (African Americans $\chi^2 = 90.790$, df = 3, p = .000; Hispanics $\chi^2 = 63.336$, df = 3, p = .000; and Whites $\chi^2 = 231.230$, df = 3, p = .000). Thus, students who believed racial discrimination was still a problem favored use of affirmative action in college admissions. Connected to beliefs about racial discrimination, the majority of respondents indicated the importance of promoting racial understanding. An association with affirmative action attitudes was found only for White students according to their belief in promoting racial understanding ($\chi^2 = 36.237$, df = 3, p = .000). In effect, for White students only, support of affirmative action increased along with students' views that promoting racial understanding was important.

Lastly, none of the four institutional characteristics (i.e., institutional race, size, control, or sex) was associated with attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for any racial/ethnic student group.

Summary. With respect to research question two, the findings illustrate:

- Support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions was associated with gender for each group, showing females were more favorable toward affirmative action in college admissions than males.
- Age was associated with support for affirmative action in college admissions for African American and White students, indicating older students in these two racial/ethnic groups were more favorable toward affirmative action than younger students.
- Separate cross-tabulations of each independent variable with attitude toward affirmative action in college admissions resulted in annual family income, parental educational attainment, political views, desire to get a bachelor's degree, intent to transfer, highest degree planned, having attended a lower choice college, and having promoted racial understanding being associated with affirmative action attitudes for White students only.
- More precisely, cross-tabulations of the independent variables with the dependent variable illustrated White students who had higher family incomes were more favorable toward abolishing affirmative action than were low-income White students.

- The higher the level of parents education, the greater the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions among White students.
- Whites who identified with being more conservative or far-right were more favorable toward abolishing affirmative action in college admissions than were those who held more liberal political views.
- For Whites, the more students felt their chances of getting a bachelor's degree or transferring to another institution were, the greater their support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.
- The less importance placed on promoting racial understanding, the higher the support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions among White students.
- High school GPA was associated with attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for African Americans and Whites suggesting that the higher the GPA, the more favorable White students were toward abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. By comparison, among African Americans, the higher the GPA the more they disagreed with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.
- Institutional characteristics were not associated with attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for any racial/ethnic group.

Variables Predicting Attitudes Toward Affirmative Action

Research Question 3: To what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree do educational aspirations, then self-interest, and finally racial affect, add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?

Logistic regression analysis was conducted with the dichotomous dependent variable being agreement or disagreement with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. The independent variables were characterized in blocks with student background characteristics as block 1, block 2 as educational aspirations, block 3 as self-interest, and racial affect as block 4. The logistic regression analyses were first conducted for the overall student sample. Then subgroup analyses were conducted for male, female, African American, Hispanic, White and finally baccalaureate aspiring students.

Overall Student Sample

Model 1. Results of the logistic regression analysis for the total sample indicate that for block 1, student background characteristics including race/ethnicity, gender, family income, and political views, predicted student attitudes toward affirmative action at the $\leq .01$ level of significance (see Table 11). For model 1, the exponentiation of $\underline{B}$ illustrates students of color and female students were less likely to agree with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions than Whites or males. The effect of increasingly liberal political views was to reduce the odds of disfavoring affirmative action in college admissions. Higher annual family income reflected slightly higher odds of student support for abolishing affirmative action. Utilizing only student background characteristics in model 1, 59.8% of the sample was classified correctly as favoring or opposing affirmative action in college admissions. Chi-square analysis revealed model fit for this block of variables was statistically significant ($\chi^2 = 440.912$, df = 8, p = .000).

Table 11

Predictors of Abolishing Affirmative Action in College Admissions for Two-Year Students

Variable	B	SE B	Wald[a]	Exp (B)
		Block 1: Model 1		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.7805	.0784	94.1202**	.4674
Hispanic	-.5259	.0783	45.0882**	.5910
Gender				
Female	-.4754	.0430	122.1629**	.6216
Age Group	-.0078	.0040	3.8816	.9922
Annual Family Income	.0223	.0075	8.8179**	1.0226
Parental Educational Attainment	.0201	.0091	4.9023	1.0203
Enrollment Status	-.0771	.0682	.2580	.9258
Political Views	-.1903	.0276	47.6372**	.8267
		Blocks 1 & 2: Model 2		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.7651	.0787	94.5696**	.4653
Hispanic	-.5377	.0785	46.8968**	.5841
Gender				
Female	-.4827	.0433	124.2318**	.6171
Age Group	-.0051	.0040	1.5959	.9950
Annual Family Income	.0190	.0076	6.3502	1.0192
Parental Educational Attainment	.0169	.0092	3.3906	1.0170
Enrollment Status	-.0784	.0684	1.3151	.9246
Political Views	-.1930	.0276	48.8525**	.8245
Get a bachelor's degree	.0199	.0270	.5436	1.0201
Transfer Intent	.0647	.0189	11.7572**	1.0668
Highest degree planned	.0320	.0219	2.1261	1.0325
		Blocks 1, 2 & 3: Model 3		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.7687	.0797	93.1355**	.4636
Hispanic	-.5405	.0790	46.8342**	.5825
Gender				
Female	-.5065	.0443	130.6197**	.6026
Age Group	-.0029	.0040	.5200	.9971
Annual Family Income	.0217	.0078	7.7278**	1.0219
Parental Educational Attainment	.0161	.0092	3.1013	1.0163
Enrollment Status	-.0775	.0684	1.2827	.9254
Political Views	-.1890	.0278	46.3199**	.8278

(table continues)

Table 11 (continued)

Variable	B	SE B	Wald^a	Exp (B)
Get a bachelor's degree	.0134	.0271	.2453	1.0135
Transfer Intent	.0561	.0192	8.4947**	1.0577
Highest degree planned	.0207	.0221	.8742	1.0209
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.1096	.0374	8.5877**	1.1159
College Choice	.0690	.0260	7.0337**	1.0715
Ability to Finance Education	.0342	.0313	1.1920	1.0348
Blocks 1-4: Full Model				
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.6352	.0818	60.3470**	.5298
Hispanic	-.4628	.0804	33.1662**	.6295
Gender				
Female	-.4515	.0450	100.8894**	.6388
Age Group	-.0019	.0041	.2128	.9981
Annual Family Income	.0231	.0079	8.5928**	1.0233
Parental Educational Attainment	.0184	.0092	3.9795	1.0186
Enrollment Status	-.0618	.0689	.8051	.9400
Political Views	-1619	.0281	33.1446**	.8505
Get a bachelor's degree	.0310	.0274	1.2779	1.0315
Transfer Intent	.0546	.0194	7.9313**	1.0561
Highest degree planned	.0276	.0224	1.5140	1.0279
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.0999	.0377	7.0172**	1.1050
College Choice	.0703	.0262	7.1823**	1.0729
Ability to Finance Education	.0481	.0316	2.3138	1.0493
Cross-race socialization	.0031	.0359	.0073	1.0031
Racial discrimination	.2606	.0267	95.1645**	1.2977
Promoting Racial Understanding	-.0671	.0245	7.4854**	.9351

Note (n = 9,376). 0 = disagree with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions; 1 = agree.
^{a}df = 1; **$p \leq .01$.

Model 2. Model 2 included block 1 variables and added block 2 variables reflective of educational aspirations. Of the three variables added to the equation (i.e., transfer intent, chances of getting a bachelor's degree, and highest degree planned), intent to transfer was significant at the $p \leq .01$ level. The variables entered in Block 2 significantly enhanced model fit (model 2, $\chi^2 = 461.137$, df = 11, p = .000 and block 2,

$\chi^2 = 20.226$, df = 3, p = .000). The odds of opposing affirmative action in college admissions remained lower among students of color, females, and those with more liberal political views than other students. The overall percentage classified correctly in favor of or opposition to dismantling affirmative action increased slightly to 60.14%.

Model 3. Model 3 added self-interest variables (i.e., GPA, college choice, and concern about finances). The addition of block 3 self-interest measures was statistically significant in improving the overall model fit ($\chi^2 = 16.895$, df = 3, p = .001) but the overall percentage of students classified correctly was virtually unchanged with the addition of the self-interest items. Additionally, GPA and college choice were significant as higher GPAs increased the odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action. Similarly, being at a lower choice institution increased the odds of a student favoring abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.

Full model. The full model added to the logistic regression equation a fourth block of variables characterized as racial affect measuring the extent to which students socialized with different racial/ethnic groups, their views on racial discrimination, and the importance they attributed to promoting racial understanding. The addition of racial affect measures enhanced the fit of the model at a statistically significant level ($\chi^2 =$ 109.887, df = 3, p = .000).

The addition of block 4, racial affect variables, revealed that cross-race socialization was not associated with the odds of abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. However, the odds of agreeing with dismantling affirmative action were 1.298 times greater for students feeling racial discrimination was no longer a problem. In other words, each one-point increase in this independent variable yielded a 30% increase in the odds of opposing affirmative action in college admissions. Racial understanding was also statistically significant at the p≤.01 level, suggesting that students placing importance on racial understanding were not as likely to resist affirmative action in college admissions as students who placed less importance on it. The overall percentage classified correctly rose slightly from 60.17% with block 3 to 60.87% when block 4 was added to the last equation. The final logistic regression equation for the full sample resulted in significant effects of the following independent variables on the odds of agreeing with abolishing affirmative action: race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income, political views, transfer intent, GPA, college choice, views on racial discrimination, and promoting racial understanding.

Male Students

Separate logistic regression analyses were conducted for males and females to determine the impact of the independent variables on the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions for each sex. Table 12 presents the logistic regression results for male two-year students, utilizing the block entry process.

Model 1. The odds of male students of color favoring dismantling affirmative action were lower than the odds of their White counterparts. No significant effect resulted for age on attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions with male students. Thus, the odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions were no different for younger than older male, two-year students. However, higher annual family income was a predictor of higher odds of favoring abolishing affirmative action in college admissions, suggesting, with higher income, the odds of support for abolishing

Table 12

Predictors of Abolishing Affirmative Action in College Admissions for Male Two-Year Students

Variable	B	SE B	Wald[a]	Exp (B)
		Block 1: Model 1		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.8849	.1193	54.9989**	.4128
Hispanic	-.6435	.1138	31.9728**	.5254
Age Group	-.0080	.0063	1.6202	.9920
Annual Family Income	.0341	.0111	9.4248**	1.0347
Parental Educational Attainment	.0090	.0132	.4679	1.0090
Enrollment Status	-.1212	.1070	1.2850	.8858
Political Views	-.1952	.0384	25.8975**	.8226
		Blocks 1 & 2: Model 2		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.9063	.1199	57.1757**	.4040
Hispanic	-.6680	.1142	34.2101**	.5127
Age Group	-.0055	.0064	.7423	.9945
Annual Family Income	.0301	.0112	7.2232**	1.0305
Parental Educational Attainment	.0047	.0133	.1238	1.0047
Enrollment Status	-.1224	.1072	1.3027	.8848
Political Views	-.1964	.0385	26.0747**	.8217
Get a bachelor's degree	.0302	.0380	.6306	1.0306
Transfer Intent	.0746	.0280	7.0904**	1.0774
Highest degree planned	.0479	.0322	2.2128	1.0491
		Blocks 1, 2 & 3: Model 3		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.8950	.1208	54.8694**	.4086
Hispanic	-.6592	.1147	33.0166**	.5172
Age Group	-.0027	.0064	.1801	.9973
Annual Family Income	.0333	.0116	8.1653**	1.0338
Parental Educational Attainment	.0037	.0133	.0769	1.0037
Enrollment Status	-.1235	.1073	1.3239	.8838
Political Views	-.1864	.0387	23.2534**	.8300
Get a bachelor's degree	.0211	.0381	.3057	1.0213
Transfer Intent	.0764	.0286	7.1093**	1.0794
Highest degree planned	.0362	.0325	1.2407	1.0369
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.1752	.0536	10.6809**	1.1915
College Choice	.0310	.0370	.6995	1.0314
Ability to Finance Education	.0055	.0457	.0145	1.0055

(table continues)

Table 12 (continued)

Variable	B	SE B	Wald^a	Exp (B)
		Blocks 1-4: Full Model		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.7641	.1240	37.9792**	.4657
Hispanic	-.5764	.1169	24.3165**	.5619
Age Group	-.0014	.0065	.0497	.9986
Annual Family Income	.0348	.0117	8.8363**	1.0354
Parental Educational Attainment	.0049	.0134	.1364	1.0050
Enrollment Status	-.1046	.1081	.9361	.9007
Political Views	-.1586	.0392	16.3839**	.8534
Get a bachelor's degree	.0436	.0385	1.2797	1.0445
Transfer Intent	.0724	.0288	6.2994**	1.0751
Highest degree planned	.0449	.0329	1.8588	1.0459
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.1551	.0541	8.2229**	1.1678
College Choice	.0351	.0373	.8843	1.0357
Ability to Finance Education	.0208	.0461	.2031	1.0210
Cross-race socialization	-.0426	.0510	.7001	.9583
Racial discrimination	.2362	.0371	40.5869**	1.2664
Promoting Racial Understanding	-.0679	.0351	3.7308	.9344

Note (n = 4.327). 0 = disagree with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions; 1 = agree.
^{a}df = 1; **$p \leq .01$.

affirmative action increased among males. Parents' educational attainment and student enrollment status were not significant in predicting affirmative action attitudes. The last student background characteristic revealed that men espousing more liberal political views had lower odds of agreeing with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions, illustrating the significant effect of political views on affirmative action attitudes. The percentage classified correctly for males for model 1 was 58.08%.

Model 2. Block 1 and 2 variables were entered in the second logistic regression model, revealing five independent variables associated with attitudes toward affirmative action at a statistically significant level for males. In examining the exponentiation of B, the findings suggest that African American and Hispanic male students had lower odds of disfavoring affirmative action in college admissions than their White male counterparts. There were no significant differences in male affirmative action attitudes by age. Higher income for males was significantly associated with higher odds of rejecting affirmative action. The odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action were 1.0305 times greater for male students from higher income families.

There was no significant impact of parents' highest level of education or student enrollment status on the odds of male support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. The odds of being an opponent of affirmative action in college admissions decreased as male students held more liberal views. Also in model 2 for males, the addition of transfer intent helped in the ability to predict support for affirmative action abolition in college admissions, suggesting that males indicating higher chances of transfer had greater odds for supporting abolishing affirmative action. Chi-square yielded a significant improvement in fit for males from model 1 ($\chi^2 = 168.071$, df = 7, p = .000) to model 2 ($\chi^2 = 15.315$, df = 3, p = .002). In comparison to model 1 that classified 58.08% of males, the introduction of block 2 educational aspiration variables resulted in classification slightly higher at 58.24%.

Model 3. The overall percentage classified correctly rose marginally for males to 58.56% with the addition of self-interest variables in block 3. Chi-square yielded a significant fit for males in model 3 ($\chi^2 = 11.359$, df = 3, p = .01). In this model, race/ethnicity, annual family income, and political views continued to significantly impact the odds of males supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. Specifically, White males with higher family incomes, and more conservative political views had higher odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action. Stronger intent to transfer continued to be significantly associated with increased odds of support for abolishing affirmative action for male students. In addition, the better grades male students earned, the more likely they were to agree with removing affirmative action in college admissions. Thus, in model 3, the odds increased about 20% for each one-point increase in the GPA scale, as coded. College choice and concern about ability to finance education were not statistically significant in predicting the odds of affirmative action resistance for two-year male students.

Full model. In the full model, the block of variables representing racial affect yielded a significant chi-square improvement in model fit for males ($\chi^2 = 49.265$, df = 3, p = .000). The overall percentage classified correctly for the final equation was 58.84% for male students. Therefore with the addition of block 4 variables, the percentage of male students classified correctly varied little from the previous model. Considering the final equation for males, students of color, students from lower income families, and those espousing more liberal political views were more favorable to maintaining affirmative action in college admissions in the final equation.

Higher GPAs and greater chances of transfer increased the odds of disfavoring affirmative action in college admissions among male students. With regard to the racial affect variables, for each one-point increase in racial discrimination no longer being a major problem in America, there was a 26% increase in the odds of males opposing affirmative action in college admissions. However, neither cross-race socializing nor promoting racial understanding had an impact on the odds of male support for abolishing affirmative action.

Female Students

Model 1. In model 1 for female students, significant effects were found for race/ethnicity and political views (See Table 13). The odds of female students of color favoring affirmative action dismantling were lower than the odds of their White female counterparts. No significant effect resulted for age on attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for females. Also for females, annual family income, parents' highest educational attainment, and student enrollment status were not significant in predicting affirmative action attitudes. Therefore, there were no significant differences in odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions for female students from various income levels, different parental education levels, and full-time or part-time enrollment. Lastly, for women, those espousing more liberal political views had lower odds of agreeing with doing away with affirmative action in college admissions. The overall percentage classified correctly in the first model including student background characteristics was 61.50% for females resulting in significant model fit ($\chi^2 = 117.517$, df = 7, p = .000).

Model 2. The overall percentage classified correctly in model 2 rose slightly to 61.81% for females. The fit of the model was still better than chance (model 2 $\chi^2 = 124.340$, df = 10, p = .000), but illustrated no improvement in fit ($\chi^2 = 6.823$, df = 3, p = .078). Therefore, educational aspiration variables did not add to the ability of background characteristics to predict attitudes of women toward affirmative action in college admissions.

While none of the block 2 variables were significant in impacting odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions for female students, race/ethnicity and political views continued to produce significant effects in the second model. In examining the exponentiation of B in model 2, the findings suggest that African American and Hispanic female students had lower odds of disfavoring affirmative action in college admissions in comparison to White females. No significant impact of age on the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action for female students was found. Higher annual family income was not significantly associated with higher odds of rejecting affirmative action for females. In addition, the odds of being an opponent of affirmative action in college admissions decreased as female students held more liberal views.

Model 3. The overall percentage classified correctly fell slightly for females (61.70%) with the addition of self-interest variables in model 3 (i.e., GPA, college choice, and concern regarding ability to finance education), but the block of variables representing self-interest produced a significant increase in model fit ($\chi^2 = 12.108$, df = 3, p = .007). The effect of race/ethnicity and political views continued to be significant on female attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions in this third model. For model 3, differences in age, annual family income, parents' educational attainment, and student enrollment status continued to show no statistically significant difference in the odds of female support for dismantling affirmative action.

Table 13

Predictors of Abolishing Affirmative Action in College Admissions for Female Two-Year Students

Variable	B	SE B	Wald[a]	Exp (B)
		Block 1: Model 1		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.6707	.1037	41.7882**	.5114
Hispanic	-.4164	.1073	15.0499**	.6594
Age Group	-.0069	.0051	1.8473	.9931
Annual Family Income	.0128	.0102	1.5605	1.0129
Parental Educational Attainment	.0301	.0126	5.7267	1.0305
Enrollment Status	-.0530	.0888	.3557	.9484
Political Views	-.1826	.0397	21.1418**	.8331
		Blocks 1 & 2: Model 2		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.6649	.1041	40.8258**	.5143
Hispanic	-.4190	.1075	15.1832**	.6577
Age Group	-.0044	.0052	.7391	.9956
Annual Family Income	.0102	.0103	.9878	1.0103
Parental Educational Attainment	.0278	.0127	4.8194	1.0282
Enrollment Status	-.0525	.0891	.3470	.9489
Political Views	-.1856	.0398	21.7502**	.8306
Get a bachelor's degree	.0088	.0385	.0517	1.0088
Transfer Intent	.0574	.0256	5.0377	1.0590
Highest degree planned	.0197	.0302	.4287	1.0199
		Blocks 1, 2, & 3: Model 3		
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.6859	.1059	41.9522**	.5036
Hispanic	-.4378	.1084	16.3267**	.6454
Age Group	-.0027	.0052	.2684	.9973
Annual Family Income	.0129	.0106	1.4856	1.0130
Parental Educational Attainment	.0274	.0127	4.6610	1.0277
Enrollment Status	-.0522	.0893	.3419	.9491
Political Views	-.1887	.0401	22.1803**	.8280
Get a bachelor's degree	.0046	.0387	.0140	1.0046
Transfer Intent	.0417	.0261	2.5567	1.0426
Highest degree planned	.0082	.0304	.0731	1.0083
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.0564	.0525	1.1528	1.0580
College Choice	.1052	.0366	8.2588**	1.1109
Ability to Finance Education	.0665	.0432	2.3706	1.0688

(table continues)

Table 13 (continued)

Variable	B	SE B	Wald^a	Exp (B)
Blocks 1-4: Full Model				
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.5515	.1089	25.6527**	.5761
Hispanic	-.3653	.1101	11.0050**	.6940
Age Group	-.0015	.0053	.0766	.9985
Annual Family Income	.0140	.0107	1.7087	1.0141
Parental Educational Attainment	.0302	.0128	5.5719	1.0307
Enrollment Status	-.0367	.0900	.1664	.9640
Political Views	-.1632	.0405	16.1994**	.8494
Get a bachelor's degree	.0170	.0391	.1895	1.0172
Transfer Intent	.0419	.0263	2.5362	1.0427
Highest degree planned	.0145	.0308	.2229	1.0146
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.0561	.0529	1.1240	1.0577
College Choice	.1037	.0369	7.9122**	1.1093
Ability to Finance Education	.0785	.0437	3.2332	1.0817
Cross-race socialization	.0499	.0509	.9583	1.0511
Racial discrimination	.2847	.0386	54.4355**	1.3293
Promoting Racial Understanding	-.0665	.0344	3.7311	.9357

Note (n = 5,049). 0 = disagree with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions; 1 = agree.
^{a}df = 1; **$p \leq .01$.

Of the self-interest measures, college choice was statistically significant in predicting the odds of affirmative action disapproval among female two-year students. More specifically, the odds of resisting affirmative action increased 1.1109 times among female students entering a second choice institution as compared to their first choice, and this increase occurred for each lower choice institution beyond that for this predictor variable. There was no significant impact of GPA or ability to finance education on the odds of support for affirmative action abolishment in college admissions for females

Full model. The block of variables representing racial affect was added to the full model yielding a significant chi-square for improvement in model fit for females (χ^2 = 61.745, df = 3, p = .000). The overall percentage classified correctly for the final equation was 62.88% for female students. Considering the final equation for female students, African American and Hispanic students remained more supportive of retaining affirmative action than White females. There were no significant effects of age, income, or parents' educational attainment on the odds of support for affirmative action dismantling for females. Female students with more liberal political views were more favorable to maintaining affirmative action in college admissions. Being enrolled at an institution that was a lower choice college appeared to increase female opposition toward affirmative action. With regard to the racial affect variables, for each one-point increase in racial discrimination no longer being a major problem in America, there was a 33% increase in the odds of female students being opposed to affirmative action in college admissions.

Summary

With respect to research question 3, the findings illustrate:

- Of the student background characteristics, race/ethnicity and political views were significant predictors of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for both male and female students in each model.
- Annual family income and political views were the only additional background characteristic shown statistically significant in predicting affirmative action attitudes in college admissions for male students in each model with the addition of other independent variables. For females, family income was never significant, but for males, political views were always significant.
- With background characteristics controlled, there was no effect of educational aspiration variables on affirmative action attitudes for female students. However,

transfer intent as a measure of educational aspirations was found to be a predictor of the odds of male support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. Specifically, male student resistance toward affirmative action in college admissions increased as intent to transfer rose.

- With the addition of self-interest variables, GPA was found to affect the odds of male support for abolishing affirmative action while controlling for background characteristic and education aspiration variables. As male students had higher GPAs, they were more likely to support abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.
- Unlike males, college choice was the self-interest variable found to significantly impact the odds of female support for abolishing affirmative action. As female students attended lower choice institutions, the greater were the odds of their supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.
- Having controlled for the effects of background characteristics, educational aspirations, and self-interest, view on racial discrimination was the only racial affect variable in the final equation that significantly predicted the odds support of affirmative action abolishment in college admissions for both male and female students.

African American Students

Model 1. Despite no significant findings for student background characteristics for African Americans, the overall percent favoring affirmative action in block 1 was 72.69%. The block of background characteristic variables did not yield a significant chi-square in model fit for African Americans ($\chi^2 = 13.352$, df = 6, p = .038). Gender had no significant effect on the odds of supporting affirmative action abolishment in college admissions for African Americans (See Table 14). Age was shown to impact student attitudes, suggesting the younger the student the less support for maintaining affirmative action in college admissions among African Americans there was. Hence, as age increases, the odds of supporting affirmative action abolition decrease. However, no significant impact of annual family income, parents' educational attainment, student enrollment status, or political views on the odds of African American students supporting affirmative action retrenchment in college admissions resulted.

Model 2. The overall percentage classified correctly as favoring or opposing affirmative action remained the same for African American students with the addition of educational aspiration measures in model 2. Chi-square analysis reported a statistically significant improvement in model fit for African American students ($\chi^2 = 15.043$, df = 3, p = .002) whereas improvement in fit for model 1 was not significant. With the addition of education aspiration variables (block 2) in the second model, age continued to be the only student background characteristic with a significant effect on the odds of African American students supporting affirmative action abolishment. No significant effects of transfer intent or chances of getting a bachelor's degree on the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions were found among African American students. Model 2 illustrated African American students were less likely to support abolishing affirmative action in college admissions as highest degree planned increased in level.

Table 14

Predictors of Abolishing Affirmative Action in College Admissions for African American Two-Year Students

Variable	B	SE B	Wald[a]	Exp (B)
Block 1: Model 1				
Gender				
Female	-.3273	.1497	4.7821	.7209
Age Group	-.0364	.0132	7.5895**	.9643
Annual Family Income	.0022	.0235	.0086	1.0022
Parental Educational Attainment	-.0427	.0305	1.9631	.9582
Enrollment Status	-.1020	.2219	.2112	.9031
Political Views	.0269	.0818	.1082	1.0273
Blocks 1 & 2: Model 2				
Gender				
Female	-.3190	.1518	4.4174	.7269
Age Group	-.0413	.0135	9.3442**	.9595
Annual Family Income	.0097	.0239	.1632	1.0097
Parental Educational Attainment	-.0230	.0313	.5396	.9773
Enrollment Status	-.0692	.2242	.0954	.9331
Political Views	.0278	.0822	.1142	1.0282
Get a bachelor's degree	-.0803	.0875	.8428	.9228
Transfer Intent	.0057	.0633	.0082	1.0058
Highest degree planned	-.2274	.0697	10.6418**	.7966
Blocks 1, 2 & 3: Model 3				
Gender				
Female	-.2825	.1533	3.3960	.7539
Age Group	-.0395	.0139	8.0969**	.9613
Annual Family Income	.0096	.0245	.1524	1.0096
Parental Educational Attainment	-.0237	.0315	.5679	.9766
Enrollment Status	-.0926	.2256	.1686	.9115
Political Views	.0280	.0822	.1161	1.0284
Get a bachelor's degree	-.0813	.0878	.8566	.9219
Transfer Intent	-.0153	.0655	.0543	.9848
Highest degree planned	-.2217	.0705	9.8836**	.8012
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	-.2522	.1335	3.5680	.7771
College Choice	.0821	.0787	1.0862	1.0855
Ability to Finance Education	-.0241	.1013	.0564	.9762

(table continues)

Table 14 (continued)

Variable	B	SE B	Wald[a]	Exp (B)
		Blocks 1-4: Full Model		
Gender				
Female	-.1965	.1571	1.5644	.8216
Age Group	-.0332	.0140	5.6477	.9673
Annual Family Income	.0122	.0249	.2387	1.0123
Parental Educational Attainment	-.0188	.0321	.3435	.9814
Enrollment Status	-.0703	.2290	.0942	.9321
Political Views	.0036	.0837	.0018	1.0036
Get a bachelor's degree	-.0205	.0912	.0507	.9797
Transfer Intent	-.0112	.0667	.0284	.9888
Highest degree planned	-.2033	.0719	8.0002**	.8160
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	-.2436	.1353	3.2434	.7838
College Choice	.1031	.0799	1.6643	1.1086
Ability to Finance Education	.0026	.1033	.0006	1.0026
Cross-race socialization	-.0993	.1126	.7772	.9055
Racial discrimination	.4674	.0919	25.8855**	1.5959
Promoting Racial Understanding	-.0424	.0806	.2763	.9585

Note (n = 974). 0 = disagree with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions; 1 = agree.
[a]df = 1; **p≤.01.

Model 3. The addition of a third block of variables in model 3 (i.e., measures of self-interest) was not statistically significant for African American students. In other words, GPA, college choice, and ability to finance education did not have effects on the odds supporting or disfavoring affirmative action in college admissions. However, age and highest degree plans remained significant in determining the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action among African American students. The overall percentage classified correctly increased slightly for model 3 (72.79%). The addition of block 3 did not result in significant improvement in model fit for African Americans ($\chi^2 = 4.739$, df = 3, p = .192).

Full model. The full model added a fourth block referred to as racial affect variables to the final equation. The addition of block 4 resulted in significant improvement in model fit for African Americans ($\chi^2 = 26.836$, df = 3, p = .000). The overall percentage classified correctly remained roughly the same for African Americans (73.10%).

Unlike models 1 through 3, the full model did not produce a significant effect of age on predicting African American student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. However, similar to the first three equations, highest degree planned was significant in determining the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action for African Americans. At the $p \leq .01$ level, only views about racial discrimination significantly predicted the odds of African American students favoring affirmative action abolition. That is, the more the student believes racial discrimination is a problem, the greater the odds he or she opposes eliminating affirmative action in college admissions.

Hispanic Students

Model 1. For model 1 with Hispanic two-year students, the overall percentage classified correctly as favoring or opposing affirmative action was 67.40% (see Table 15). The improvement in model fit was significant at the $p \leq .01$ ($\chi^2 = 18.214$, df = 6, p = .006). However, no significant impact was found for any student background characteristics on the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions among Hispanic students.

Model 2. The overall percentage classified correctly as favoring or opposing affirmative action witnessed a slight increase (67.61%) for Hispanics with the addition of educational aspiration measures in the second model. Chi-square analysis did not result in a statistically significant improvement in fit for Hispanic collegians upon entering the block 2, educational aspiration variables (χ^2 = .268, df = 3, p = .966).

Table 15

Predictors of Abolishing Affirmative Action in College Admissions for Hispanic Two-Year Students

Variable	B	SE B	Wald^a	Exp (B)
Block 1: Model 1				
Gender				
Female	-.2783	.1429	3.7909	.7571
Age Group	-.0197	.0143	1.8828	.9805
Annual Family Income	.0352	.0236	2.2189	1.0358
Parental Educational Attainment	.0369	.0240	2.3547	1.0376
Enrollment Status	.0195	.1890	.0106	1.0197
Political Views	-.1282	.0883	2.1083	.8797
Blocks 1 & 2: Model 2				
Gender				
Female	-.2700	.1438	3.5239	.7634
Age Group	-.0195	.0145	1.8256	.9807
Annual Family Income	.0350	.0236	2.1876	1.0356
Parental Educational Attainment	.0376	.0243	2.3930	1.0384
Enrollment Status	.0243	.1897	.0164	1.0246
Political Views	-.1277	.0885	2.0820	.8801
Get a bachelor's degree	-.0259	.0906	.0817	.9744
Transfer Intent	.0236	.0639	.1363	1.0239
Highest degree planned	-.0156	.0721	.0468	.9845
Blocks 1, 2 & 3: Model 3				
Gender				
Female	-.2615	.1460	3.2083	.7699
Age Group	-.0183	.0146	1.5670	.9819
Annual Family Income	.0356	.0244	2.1205	1.0362
Parental Educational Attainment	.0371	.0244	2.3112	1.0378
Enrollment Status	.0380	.1903	.0400	1.0388
Political Views	-.1329	.0888	2.2384	.8756

(table continues)

Table 15 (continued)

Variable	B	SE B	Wald^a	Exp (B)
Get a bachelor's degree	-.0241	.0907	.0704	.9762
Transfer Intent	.0114	.0655	.0305	1.0115
Highest degree planned	-.0175	.0730	.0576	.9826
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	-.1169	.1215	.9256	.8897
College Choice	.0565	.0857	.4355	1.0582
Ability to Finance Education	.0568	.1081	.2757	1.0584
Blocks 1-4: Full Model				
Gender				
Female	-.2055	.1485	1.9148	.8142
Age Group	-.0164	.0146	1.2572	.9838
Annual Family Income	.0350	.0249	1.9657	1.0356
Parental Educational Attainment	.0366	.0248	2.1741	1.0356
Enrollment Status	.0733	.1929	.1444	1.0760
Political Views	-.1078	.0905	1.4188	.8978
Get a bachelor's degree	.0152	.0933	.0264	1.0153
Transfer Intent	-.0061	.0667	.0085	.9939
Highest degree planned	-.0161	.0741	.0470	.9841
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	-.1407	.1236	1.2964	.8687
College Choice	.0737	.0868	.7222	1.0765
Ability to Finance Education	.0735	.1104	.4436	1.0763
Cross-race socialization	-.0827	.1245	.4413	.9206
Racial discrimination	.3856	.0852	20.4980**	1.4705
Promoting Racial Understanding	.0118	.0786	.0225	1.0119

Note (n = 914). 0 = disagree with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions; 1 = agree.
^{a}df = 1; **$p \leq .01$.

Model 3. The addition of self-interest variables in model 3 did not improve model fit for Hispanic students ($\chi^2 = 1.557$, df = 3, p = .6692). Hence, no self-interest variables assisted in predicting Hispanic student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. More specifically, transfer intent, chances of getting a bachelor's degree, and highest degree planned did not have a statistically significant effect on the odds of Hispanic student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions being favorable or unfavorable.

Full model. The fourth block adding racial affect variables to the final equation resulted in significant improvement in model fit for the Hispanic sample ($\chi^2 = 21.991$, df = 3, p = .000). For Hispanic students, the overall percentage classified correctly was 68.05%. For the full model, the only variable showing significant results was views about racial discrimination. Therefore, the more Hispanics believed racial discrimination was a problem, the greater the odds they opposed eliminating affirmative action in college admissions.

White Students

Model 1. Model 1 for White students yielded significant effects for three background characteristic variables (i.e., gender, annual family income, and political views) on student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions (see Table 16). The odds of supporting affirmative action abolition were .5972 less for White females than White males. Age was not found to significantly impact the odds of White student support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. Additionally, parents' educational attainment and student enrollment status were not significant in predicting the odds of support for dismantling affirmative action among White two-year students. Overall, the odds of Whites favoring abolishing affirmative action were 1.0248 times greater for students with each increase in income, suggesting that higher income students had a greater likelihood of supporting affirmative action abolishment. White students who had more conservative political views were more apt to agree with getting rid of affirmative action in college admissions. The first block of student characteristic

Table 16

Predictors of Abolishing Affirmative Action in College Admissions for White Two-Year Students

Variable	B	SE B	Wald[a]	Exp (B)
Block 1: Model 1				
Gender				
Female	-.5155	.0475	117.8113**	.5972
Age Group	-.0033	.0044	.5620	.9967
Annual Family Income	.0245	.0085	8.3793**	1.0248
Parental Educational Attainment	.0224	.0104	4.6260	1.0226
Enrollment Status	-.0951	.0780	1.4868	.9093
Political Views	-.2282	.0312	53.5880**	.7960
Blocks 1 & 2: Model 2				
Gender				
Female	-.5358	.0479	124.9097**	.5852
Age Group	.0006	.0045	.0199	1.0006
Annual Family Income	.0198	.0085	5.4335	1.0200
Parental Educational Attainment	.0165	.0105	2.4804	1.0167
Enrollment Status	-.1005	.0783	1.6464	.9044
Political Views	-.2312	.0313	54.7254**	.7935
Get a bachelor's degree	.0329	.0300	1.2081	1.0335
Transfer Intent	.0718	.0209	11.8127**	1.0745
Highest degree planned	.0712	.0246	8.3531**	1.0738
Blocks 1, 2 & 3: Model 3				
Gender				
Female	-.5777	.0494	137.0217**	.5612
Age Group	.0037	.0045	.6790	1.0037
Annual Family Income	.0241	.0088	7.4553**	1.0244
Parental Educational Attainment	.0152	.0105	2.0897	1.0153
Enrollment Status	-.1004	.0785	1.6374	.9045
Political Views	-.2208	.0315	49.1874**	.8019
Get a bachelor's degree	.0213	.0301	.5022	1.0216
Transfer Intent	.0645	.0213	9.1502**	1.0666
Highest degree planned	.0569	.0249	5.2337	1.0585
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.1724	.0416	17.1468**	1.1882
College Choice	.0682	.0294	5.3727	1.0705
Ability to Finance Education	.0419	.0348	1.4487	1.0428

(table continues)

Table 16 (*continued*)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	Wald^a	Exp (*B*)
		Blocks 1-4: Full Model		
Gender				
Female	-.5285	.0500	111.5957**	.5895
Age Group	.0046	.0046	1.0124	1.0046
Annual Family Income	.0254	.0089	8.1903**	1.0257
Parental Educational Attainment	.0180	.0106	2.8796	1.0181
Enrollment Status	-.0869	.0789	1.2139	.9168
Political Views	-.1907	.0319	35.6792**	.8264
Get a bachelor's degree	.0325	.0303	1.1517	1.0331
Transfer Intent	.0640	.0214	8.9416**	1.0661
Highest degree planned	.0638	.0251	6.4476	1.0659
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.1639	.0419	15.2868**	1.1782
College Choice	.0665	.0296	5.0421	1.0687
Ability to Finance Education	.0536	.0351	2.3381	1.0551
Cross-race socialization	.0303	.0399	.5755	1.0307
Racial discrimination	.2150	.0296	52.6114**	1.2398
Promoting Racial Understanding	-.0782	.0276	8.0307**	.9248

Note (n = 7,488). 0 = disagree with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions; 1 = agree.
^{a}df = 1; **p≤.01.

variables resulted in significant model fit for the White sample ($\chi^2 = 221.106$, df = 6, p = .000).

Model 2. The overall percentage classified correctly as favoring or opposing affirmative action witnessed a slight increase for Whites with the addition of educational aspiration measures (from 57.20% for model 1 to 58.05% for model 2). For White students, chi-square analysis reported a statistically significant improvement in fit for model 2 with the addition of educational aspiration variables ($\chi^2 = 33.755$, df = 3, p = .000). Gender and political views continued to be the only student background variables significant in model 2. Although chances of getting a bachelor's degree did not significantly impact the odds of White student support for abolishing affirmative action, intent to transfer and highest degree planned did predict affirmative action attitudes. The odds of White student resistance toward affirmative action in college admissions increased with stronger transfer intentions and higher degree plans.

Model 3. Model 3 included student background characteristics, educational aspirations and measures of self-interest (i.e., GPA, college choice, and concern about ability to finance education). With the addition of self-interest variables, there was improvement in fit ($\chi^2 = 24.016$, df = 3, p = .000) and the overall percentage of affirmative action favor and opposition classified correctly rose slightly to 58.41%. In addition, significant effects of gender, income, political views, and transfer intent on the odds of supporting affirmative action dismantling were yielded in the third model. For White collegians, each one-point increase of GPA had a significant effect on affirmative action attitudes in college admissions. Meaning, the odds were greater for better academically prepared White students to disapprove of affirmative action in college admissions. In addition, the effect of college choice and ability to finance education on attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions was not statistically significant for White students in model 3.

Full model. The fourth block adding racial affect variables to the final equation resulted in significant improvement in model fit White students ($\chi^2 = 65.700$, df = 3, p = .000). The overall percentage classified correctly for White students was 58.72%. The previous variables found to significantly impact the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in earlier models were also significant predictors of White student affirmative action attitudes in the full model. In addition, both views on racial discrimination and promoting racial understanding had a significant effect on White students' attitudes toward affirmative action. As White students increasingly felt racial discrimination was no longer a problem, the greater the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. Likewise, the more importance White students placed on racial understanding, the less likely they favored dismantling affirmative action.

In sum, White females were less resistant to affirmative action in college admissions than White males. The odds of a White student supporting abolishing affirmative action increased with higher income levels. Increased liberalism among Whites was found to decrease the odds of students supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. Stronger transfer intent yielded significantly higher odds of supporting affirmative action dismantling. In addition, the odds of White students disapproving of affirmative action in college admissions increased as high school GPA increased. The odds of White students favoring affirmative action dismantling were 1.2398 times greater for each one-point increase on the scale of agreement of racial discrimination. In other words, greater support for affirmative action abolishment in college admissions corresponded with increased agreement with racial discrimination not being a problem. Lastly, for White collegians who rated racial understanding as more important, the odds of advocating retrenchment of affirmative action in college admissions lessen by .9248.

Summary

With respect to research question 3, the findings illustrate:

- None of the student background characteristics were significant predictors of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for Hispanic students.
- Age was the only background characteristic shown statistically significant for African American students in model 1 at predicting affirmative action attitudes in college admissions.
- For Whites, the effect of gender, income and political views was statistically significant on students affirmative action attitudes, showing that females, students from families with low annual incomes, and more liberal political views were less likely to support abolishing affirmative action.
- With background characteristics controlled, White student resistance toward affirmative action in college admissions increased as intent to transfer and degree aspirations rose. On the other hand, African American students were less likely to support abolishing affirmative action as their degree aspirations increased.
- With background characteristics and educational aspirations controlled, the addition of self-interest variables was not statistical significant for Hispanic and African American students; however, GPA was a significant predictor of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions for White students. This suggests that as White students earned better grades, their support for abolishing affirmative action increased.
- Unlike students of color, the odds were greater for better academically prepared White students to disapprove of affirmative action in college admissions.
- The fourth block adding racial affect variables to the final equation resulted in significant improvement in model fit for each racial/ethnic group. The overall

percentage classified correctly by attitudes remained highest for African Americans (73.10%), then Hispanic (68.05%) followed by White students (58.72%).

- In the final equation, highest degree planned, and views on racial discrimination were the only significant independent variables that predicted support or disfavor of affirmative action in college admissions for African Americans.
- For the full model, the addition of racial affect variables resulted in views on racial discrimination and promoting racial understanding significantly affecting White students' attitudes toward affirmative action.
- Views about racial discrimination was the only racial affect variable that significantly predicted the odds of African American and Hispanic students favoring affirmative action abolition with background characteristic, educational aspiration, and self-interest variables controlled.

Variables Predicting Affirmative Action Attitudes for Baccalaureate Aspirants

Research question 4: For two-year students who intend to transfer and obtain a bachelor's degree or higher, to what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree does self-interest, then racial affect add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?

Separate logistic regression analyses were conducted to examine support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions among students with baccalaureate aspirations. Each of the following conditions had to be met for inclusion in this subgroup: some or very high chances of transfer, some or very high chances of getting a bachelor's degree, and highest degree plans for the baccalaureate degree or higher. Table

17 presents the hierarchical logistic regression results for two-year baccalaureate aspirants utilizing the block entry process. Similar to previous analyses, the independent variables were characterized in blocks with student background characteristics as block 1, block 2 as self-interest, and racial affect as block 3.

Model 1

With only student background characteristics in model 1, 59.8% of this sample was classified correctly as favoring or opposing affirmative action in college admissions. Chi-square analysis revealed that this block of variables was statistically significant in fit ($\chi^2 = 252.745$, df = 8, p = .000). Results of the logistic regression analysis for baccalaureate aspirants indicate that for the first block of model one, race/ethnicity, gender, family income, and political views were predictive of student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. No significant differences in age, parental education or student enrollment status resulted. The exponentiation of B in the first model illustrated African American and Hispanic students were less likely to agree with abolishing affirmative action in college. The odds of female support for affirmative action abolishment were .6088 times less than the odds for male baccalaureate aspirants. Specifically, women in pursuit of the baccalaureate were more favorable toward affirmative action in college admissions than their male counterparts. Additionally, the effect of increasing annual family income and more liberal political views was to reduce the odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.

Table 17

Predictors of Abolishing Affirmative Action in College Admissions for Two-Year Baccalaureate Aspirants

Variable	B	SE B	Wald^a	Exp (B)
Block 1: Model 1				
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.9983	.1269	61.9312**	.3685
Hispanic	-.6239	.1172	28.3623**	.5358
Gender				
Female	-.4962	.0623	63.3913**	.6088
Age Group	-.0064	.0070	.8356	.9936
Annual Family Income	.0289	.0111	6.7708**	1.0294
Parental Educational Attainment	.0014	.0135	.0114	1.0014
Enrollment Status	.0328	.0996	.1085	1.0333
Political Views	-.2465	.0398	38.2888**	.7816
Blocks 1 & 2: Model 2				
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.9887	.1285	59.1849**	.3721
Hispanic	-.6104	.1182	26.6877**	.5431
Gender				
Female	-.5478	.0646	72.0000**	.5782
Age Group	-.0025	.0071	.1252	.9975
Annual Family Income	.0347	.0116	9.0076**	1.0353
Parental Educational Attainment	.0004	.0136	.0010	1.0004
Enrollment Status	.0472	.0998	.2235	1.0483
Political Views	-.2388	.0401	35.3976**	.7875
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.1736	.0538	10.4003**	1.1896
College Choice	.0642	.0327	3.8411	1.0663
Ability to Finance Education	.0709	.0450	2.4808	1.0735
Blocks 1, 2 & 3: Model 3				
Racial/Ethnic Identification				
African American	-.8407	.1314	40.9247**	.4314
Hispanic	-.5354	.1201	19.8782**	.5854
Gender				
Female	-.4889	.0656	55.4935**	.6133
Age Group	-.0005	.0071	.0047	.9995
Annual Family Income	.0359	.0116	9.5253**	1.0366
Parental Educational Attainment	.0016	.0137	.0136	1.0016
Enrollment Status	.0797	.1007	.6265	1.0830
Political Views	-.2118	.0407	27.0660**	.8091

(table continues)

Table 17 (continued)

Variable	B	SE B	Wald[a]	Exp (B)
Academic Preparedness (GPA)	.1609	.0542	8.8095**	1.1746
College Choice	.0650	.0330	3.8799	1.0672
Ability to Finance Education	.0888	.0456	3.7927	1.0928
Cross-race socialization	-.0067	.0540	.0153	.10067
Racial discrimination	.2407	.0392	37.6672**	1.2722
Promoting Racial Understanding	-.0680	.0353	3.7177	.9343

Note (n = 4447) [a]df = 1 **p≤.01
0 = disagree with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions; 1 = agree.

Model 2

Model 2 included block 1 variables and entered a second block of variables reflecting self-interest measures (i.e., GPA, college choice, and concern about finances). The overall percentage classified correctly in favor or in opposition to dismantling affirmative action increased slightly to 60.13%. The addition of self-interests measures in the second model was statistically significant in improving overall model fit (χ^2 = 17.382, df = 3, p = .001).

Similar to the first model, being a student of color, female, having lower family income, and having more liberal political views lowered the odds of a student supporting abolishing affirmative action. Model 2 yielded significant differences in the impact of annual family income on affirmative action attitudes of baccalaureate aspirants as well. However, of the three self-interest variables, GPA was the only variable having a significant influence on attitudes toward affirmative action. As GPA was rose, the odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions increased.

Model 3

The last model added a third block of variables characterizing racial affect to the logistic regression equation. The racial affect variables measured the extent to which students socialize with different racial/ethnic groups, and how they view racial discrimination and rate the importance of promoting racial understanding. The overall percentage classified correctly rose slightly to 60.81% when block 3 was added to the last equation. The addition of racial affect measures enhanced the fit of model three (χ^2 = 45.147, df = 3, p = .000).

The addition of racial affect variables revealed that cross-race socialization and promoting racial understanding were not associated with the odds of abolishing affirmative action in college admissions among baccalaureate aspirants. However, the odds of agreeing with dismantling affirmative action were 1.272 times greater for students feeling racial discrimination was no longer a problem. In other words, each one-point increase in this independent variable yielded a 27% increase in the odds of baccalaureate aspirants opposing affirmative action in college admissions. The final logistic regression equation for baccalaureate aspirants resulted in significant effects of race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income, political views, GPA, and views on racial discrimination on the odds of agreeing with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.

Summary. With respect to research question 4, the findings illustrate:

- In model 1. the student background characteristics predicting baccalaureate aspirants' attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions were race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income, and political views. Specifically, students of color, females, lower-income, and students aspiring bachelor's degrees who were more liberal in their political views had lowered odds of supporting affirmative action retrenchment.

- For two-year baccalaureate aspirants, each one-point increase of GPA had a significant effect on affirmative action attitudes in college admissions. The odds were greater for better academically prepared baccalaureate aspirants to disapprove of affirmative action in college admissions.
- The third block adding racial affect variables resulted in significant improvement in model fit. The overall percent of baccalaureate aspirants classified correctly by attitudes was 60.81%. In this final model, views on racial discrimination were the only significant racial affect variable to impact the odds of support or disfavor of affirmative action in college admissions for two-year baccalaureate aspirants.

Chapter Summary

The analyses showed both descriptive and inferential statistics addressing the four research questions. First, frequency/percentage distributions provided a portrait of the total student sample. Second, cross-tabulations and chi-square tests were conducted to determine the degree of association between attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions and the independent variables of interest for students in each racial/ethnic group. Third, this chapter examined independent variables as predictors of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions through a series of hierarchical logistic regression analysis models and equations for the entire sample, then separately by gender, racial/ethnic group, and finally for baccalaureate aspirants.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of the present study was to examine two-year student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. This chapter is organized according to the results reported in Chapter Four. The beginning section provides an overview of the problem addressed in the study as well as the methods of analysis. The following section synthesizes the findings in regard to the research questions presented in Chapter Three. The last section discusses implications of the study, recommendations for higher education policy and practice, and concludes with directions for future research.

Overview

Among several assertions, status attainment theorists posit that the educational options of students are often a result of their socioeconomic status and/or their majority-minority status (Blau & Duncan, 1967; Dreeben, 1994; Kerckhoff, 1976; Sewell & Shaw, 1967). Furthermore, research has suggested that differences in students' financial backgrounds increasingly predetermine college attendance and degree acquisition; widening the gap between the "haves" and the "have-nots" (Eckland, 1964; Lin, 1990). Contrary to the status attainment literature that suggests low-income student aspirations and attainment are suppressed, other studies suggest that the U. S. educational system is made up of institutions of meritocracy where all students, regardless of SES, can openly compete for upward mobility (Turner, 1960).

The history of inequality and social stratification in American society continues to reflect unequal participation for minorities and low-income persons (Dreeben, 1994).

With this background in mind, over three decades ago federal legislation ordered educational institutions to comply with mandates to safeguard equal access and opportunities for students of color. Given that American institutions were not openly accessible to all citizens prior to the mid 1960s, efforts to ensure equal participation were enacted in 1965, evolving into affirmative action policies and programs.

Guided by status attainment theory, this study attempted to examine affirmative action attitudes of two-year students relative to college admissions. Higher education stratification casts two-year institutions (i.e., community, junior and technical colleges) at the bottom tier of American colleges (Brint & Karabel, 1989b; Dougherty, 1988; Labaree, 1990). Traditionally, students of color have been disproportionately represented at community colleges, but these students often have plans to transfer and earn a bachelor's degree or even more advanced degree. To date, research has not examined two-year student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. Given mixed public opinions regarding the use of affirmative action in higher education, the principle goal of the study was to investigate the attitudes of community college students toward affirmative action in college admissions.

This study involved secondary data analysis of 1996 Cooperative Institutional Research Program (CIRP) data from a cross-section of two-year students. In addressing the research questions posed, analysis was restricted to include only African American, Hispanic, and White two-year students (N = 20,339). The study employed descriptive and multivariate analyses. However, the major research design for this study used a hierarchical framework for assessing the impact of the independent variables on two-year student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions.

Summary of Findings

This section summarizes the findings of the study according to the four main research questions stated in Chapters One and Three. Therefore, the section proceeds addressing the research questions in the order of appearance.

Research Question 1

How do two-year students vary in regard to affirmative action attitudes in college admissions and the independent variables, (i.e., student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, racial affect, and institutional characteristics) according to race/ethnicity?

Descriptive analysis revealed that a little over half of the sample was female and the majority of students was traditional college age. The vast majority of these two-year students attended college full-time. Over one-third of African American and Hispanic two-year students were from families with annual families incomes under $15,000, whereas 14% of White two-year students were from the same income bracket.

Over 60% of Hispanic students' parents were high school graduates or less, compared to nearly 50% of African American but only 38% of Whites. Approximately 30% of the overall sample felt there was some chance of earning a four-year degree whereas 51% believe their chances for the baccalaureate were very good. However, African American students had degree aspirations that were slightly higher than Whites and Hispanics when responding about obtaining a bachelor's degree or plans for degrees beyond the baccalaureate.

Seventy-four percent of African American and 57.5% of Hispanic students disagreed strongly with racial discrimination still being a problem while 46.4% of White students reported similarly. Likewise, higher percentages of two-year students of color rated promoting racial understanding as important than did White students. About half of Whites and over two-thirds of students of color favored the role of affirmative action in college admissions.

Research Question 2

To what extent are the independent variables associated with student attitudes toward affirmative action for each racial/ethnic group?

Females were more favorable to affirmative action in college admissions than males for each racial/ethnic group. Age yielded a significant association with support for affirmative action abolition in college admissions for African American and White students. Older African American and White students favored affirmative action more than younger African American and White students. Aside from gender and age, no other student background characteristics were found to be significantly associated with African American student affirmative action attitudes. Additionally, gender was the only background characteristic associated with Hispanic student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions.

The association between educational aspiration variables and attitude toward affirmative action in college admissions was not statistically significant for African American and Hispanic students. However, GPA as a measure of self-interest, was significantly associated only with African American student and White student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. It appears that the lower the GPA, the more favorable White students were toward abolishing affirmative action in college admissions, whereas the higher the GPAs for African Americans, the more they favor affirmative action in college admissions.

Moreover, White students who had higher family incomes, parents with high levels of education, and identified with being conservative or far-right were more favorable toward abolishing affirmative action in college admissions than were low-income White students and those with less-educated parents and liberal political views. Additionally, the better White students felt their chances were of getting a bachelor's degree or transferring to another institution or attending a college that was not their first-choice institution, the greater their support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. Highest degree planned was also associated with White students' attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions, with associate degree aspirants most favorable and those aiming toward medical or law degrees least favorable toward affirmative action. Finally, the less important promoting racial understanding, the higher the support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions probably is among White students.

Views that racial discrimination were no longer a problem were statistically significant in their association with attitudes toward affirmative action for each racial/ethnic group. Chi-square analysis found statistically significant associations between several independent variables and attitudes toward affirmative action for White students; however, fewer significant associations were found within the African American and Hispanic student groups. Lastly, there were no significant associations between attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions and institutional characteristics for each racial/ethnic group.

Research Question 3

To what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree do educational aspirations, then self-interest, and finally racial affect, add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?

The third research question sought to measure the degree to which student background characteristics and the other independent variables predicted the odds of favoring or opposing affirmative action in college admissions. The analyses were conducted for the overall sample and for five subgroups: male, female, African American, Hispanic, and White students. This section serves to compare the blocks of variables (i.e., student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, and racial affect) as well as summarize the findings of each subgroup.

Overall sample. With regard to student background characteristics for the overall sample, significant effects were found for race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income, and political views on affirmative action attitudes. Being a person of color, female and more liberal had a negative effect on support for abolishing affirmative action. Further, results indicate that annual family income had a positive effect on the odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action for students from higher financial backgrounds.

Logistic regression analyses illustrate significant effects for select variables in models 2 and 3 for the overall sample. With the addition of educational aspirations while controlling for background characteristics, transfer intent was found to significantly predict student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. While controlling for background characteristics and educational aspirations, high school GPA and college choice as measures of self-interest had a significant effect on affirmative action attitudes of two-year students. For the full model, racial affect variables were added controlling for the effects of background characteristics, educational aspirations, and self-interest. Views on racial discrimination and promoting racial understanding were found to effect the likelihood of favoring or disfavoring affirmative action in college admissions for the entire sample.

Males. In conducting logistic regression analyses with males, race/ethnicity, annual family income, and political views were the background characteristics found to predict the odds of favoring the dismantling of affirmative action. The odds of resisting affirmative action abolition were higher among male students of color and those who identified with more liberal political views. Controlling for variables entered in the previous blocks, transfer intent as a measure of educational aspirations was found to have a significant positive effect for male students in the second, third, and final models. Therefore, the greater intent to transfer among males, the stronger the association with support for affirmative action abolishment.

For block 3, background characteristic and educational aspiration measures were controlled to determine the effects of self-interest variables. When controlling for the variables entered earlier into the model, high school GPA was the only predictor of male support for abolishing affirmative action. The higher the GPA of male students upon entering two-year institutions, the more likely they favored abolition of affirmative action in college admissions. Additionally, views regarding racial discrimination were the only racial affect measure found to impact the odds of males favoring or opposing affirmative action in college admissions in the full model.

Females. For females however, race/ethnicity and political views were the only student background characteristics that resulted in statistically significant effects on student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. Also, for female students, educational aspirations measures did not add to the prediction of the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions when controlling for background characteristics or later with the addition of self-interest or racial affect variables.

Model 3 added a block of variables representative of self-interest. Controlling for background characteristics and educational aspirations, college choice was the only self-interest variable found to affect affirmative action attitudes among female students. More specifically, women were 1.1093 times more likely to support dismantling affirmative action if attending their second instead of first choice institution. Lastly, with respect to measures of racial affect, views on racial discrimination resulted in a significant effect on the likelihood of favoring or opposing affirmative action in college admissions when controlling for variables previously entered in the model. In other words, women that reported racial discrimination as being a problem were less apt to support retrenchment of affirmative action in college admissions.

African Americans. In controlling for background characteristics, logistic regression analyses conducted on African Americans exclusively, showed effects for highest degree planned as statistically significant among measures of educational aspirations. Similarly, when controlling for background characteristics and educational aspirations and adding self-interest, prior significant effects (i.e., age and highest degree planned) continued to significantly impact support for abolishing affirmative action.

However, none of the self-interest variables had a significant effect on predicting the odds of African American student support or resistance to affirmative action in college admissions. With the addition of racial affect variables in the full model, views on racial discrimination was significant in predicting the odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action abolishment when controlling for variables entered earlier into the model. Therefore, the more African American students felt racial discrimination was a problem, the greater the odds of their favoring dismantling affirmative action.

Hispanics. Logistic regression results produced only one significant effect for Hispanic collegians. While none of the educational aspiration or self-interest variables produced statistically significant effects, one of the racial affect variables was found to effect Hispanics' affirmative action attitudes. Consistent with other student groups, viewing racial discrimination as no longer a problem appears to have a statistically significant positive effect on support for abolishing affirmative action among Hispanic students.

Whites. Model 1 for Whites yielded significant effects of three background characteristic variables (i.e., gender, annual family income, and political views) on student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. White women were less opposed to affirmative action in college admissions than White men were and higher income students had a greater likelihood of supporting abolishing affirmative action. Additionally, the odds of White students supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions were greater when they held more conservative political views.

Logistic regression analyses controlling for background characteristics with the addition of educational aspiration variables to model 2 resulted in gender and political views being the only significant student background variables for Whites. The introduction of educational aspiration variables produced two additional variables predictive of affirmative action attitudes, intent to transfer and highest degree planned. The odds of White student resistance toward affirmative action in college admissions increased with stronger transfer intentions and higher degree plans.

With the addition of self-interest variables in model 3, GPA had a significant effect on affirmative action attitudes in college admissions when controlling for background characteristics and educational aspirations. The odds were greater for better academically prepared White students to disapprove of affirmative action in college admissions. College choice and ability to finance education were not statistically significant for White students in model 3. However, a significant impact of gender, income, political views, and transfer intent on the odds of Whites supporting affirmative action dismantling still resulted, similar to models 1 and 2.

The fourth block adding racial affect variables, controlling for independent variables entered earlier resulted in significant findings for most of the variables found to predict White support for abolishing affirmative action in models 1 through 3. In addition, both views on racial discrimination and promoting racial understanding had a significant effect on White students' attitudes toward affirmative action. The less favorable White students were toward racial understanding, the greater the odds they favored dismantling affirmative action.

In summary, whereas race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income, and political views significantly predicted the odds of support or disfavor for affirmative action for the full sample, separate logistic regression analyses produced different effects by racial/ethnic group. For example, age was the only background characteristic found to have a significant effect on the odds of favoring or opposing abolishing affirmative action among African Americans upon entering blocks one through three. However, age was no longer significant at the $p \leq .01$ of significance in the final equation. Student background characteristics did not produce statistically significant effects on Hispanic student attitudes toward affirmative action in any of the four equations. Gender, annual family income and political views appear to affect attitudes toward affirmative action in blocks one, three and four in analyses with White students solely. Although previous research has found political ideologies to be strongly connected to affirmative action attitudes (Constantini & King, 1985), this was only partially supported in this study. Therefore, background characteristics (e.g., parents' educational attainment, annual family income, and political views) are not predictive of the attitudes of African American and Hispanic students toward affirmative action in college admissions.

Research Question 4

For two-year students who intend to transfer and obtain a bachelor's degree or higher, to what extent do student background characteristics alone predict affirmative action attitudes; to what degree does self-interest, then racial affect add to the prediction of attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions?

Results were obtained examining affirmative action attitudes in college admissions among students who indicated some or very high chances of transfer, getting a bachelor's degree, and highest degree plans including a baccalaureate degree and beyond. Results of the logistic regression analysis for baccalaureate aspirants showed race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income, and political views were predictors of student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions in model 1. No significant differences were found in the impact of age, parental education, and student enrollment status on affirmative action attitudes in college admissions. The first model illustrated students of color were less likely than Whites to agree with abolishing affirmative action in college. In addition, the odds of female support for affirmative action abolishment were less than the odds for male baccalaureate aspirants. Thus, female students who planned to transfer and pursue the baccalaureate were more favorable toward affirmative action in college admissions than males. Additionally, lower income students and those with more liberal political views had fewer odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.

Similar to model 1, being a student of color, female, having family lower-income, and having more liberal political views decreased the odds of a student favoring affirmative action abolishment in models 2. The addition of self-interest variables in model 2 revealed GPA as the only self-interest variable to significantly influence attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions in model 2. As GPA increased, the odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action in college admissions rose.

Controlling for background characteristics and self-interest, the last model added a third block of variables characterizing racial affect to the logistic regression equation. The addition of racial affect variables found cross-race socialization and promoting racial understanding not significant in predicting the odds of abolishing affirmative action in college admissions among baccalaureate aspirants. The odds of agreeing with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions were greater for baccalaureate aspirants responding that racial discrimination is no longer a problem. The final logistic regression equation (model 3) for baccalaureate aspirants showed significant effects of race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income, political views, GPA, and views on racial discrimination on the odds of agreeing with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.

Conclusions and Implications

Researchers have argued that opposition to affirmative action among Whites is largely due to aversive or symbolic racism (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Dovidio, Mann, & Gaertner, 1989; Sears & Jessor, 1996). Past research has also examined attitudes toward race-targeted affirmative action among Whites and to a lesser extent with people of color (Dovidio, Gaertner, & Mann, 1994; Kluegel, 1990; Kluegel & Smith, 1993; Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994; Stanush, Arthur, & Doverspike, 1998). In contrast, the literature on affirmative action has focused very little attention on student attitudes toward affirmative action, particularly in higher education and college admissions, with multi-ethnic samples (Amirkhan, Betancourt, Graham, Lopez, & Weiner, 1995; Nosworthy, Lea, & Lindsay, 1995; Meader, 1998; Sax & Arredondo, 1999; Smith, 1996). Furthermore, studies on college student attitudes toward affirmative action have exclusively examined four-year student affirmative action attitudes.

Results of this study suggest that variables such as race/ethnicity, gender, political views, and promotion of racial understanding impact the odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action. Specifically, when looking at the overall sample, students of color, women, liberals, and those placing importance on racial understanding had reduced odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action than other groups. Students having higher income families, greater intentions of transferring, higher GPAs, lower college choice, and greater belief that racial discrimination is not a problem had greater odds for supporting affirmative action abolishment in college admissions. Consistent with Sax & Arredondo (1999), students espousing conservative political views had a greater likelihood of supporting abolishing affirmative action than students having more liberal political views.

Another conclusion is that race/ethnicity and gender bear influence on student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. The findings illustrate that larger percentages of White students opposed affirmative action and have greater odds of supporting abolishing affirmative action consistent with previous studies addressing affirmative action attitudes (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Bobo & Smith, 1994; Kluegel & Smith, 1983; Sax & Arredondo, 1999; Smith & Kluegel, 1984). However, despite the current period of affirmative action retrenchment in higher education, it appears from this study that there is widespread support for affirmative action in college admissions across each racial/ethnic group of community college students.

Interestingly, there were marked differences in levels of support for abolishing affirmative action between White males and females. White female students were less likely than White males to support abolishing affirmative action in college admissions. Consistent with Kravitz and Platania (1993), the effects of gender show that women evaluated affirmative action more positively than men. In contrast, Smith (1993) and Zamani (1997) found that White women were no more inclined to support affirmative action than White males. In previous research, Zamani (1997) examined race-targeted affirmative action policies and found them predictive of negative attitudes toward affirmative action among White women. This study could not discern whether attitudes toward affirmative action were associated with race-, gender-, or class-based policies since CIRP data did not make such distinctions.

Similar to prior research, results revealed that African Americans and Hispanics approved of affirmative action at higher rates than did their White counterparts (Bobo & Kluegel, 1993; Dovidio, Mann & Gaertner, 1989; Dovidio, Gaertner, & Murrell, 1994; Sax & Arredondo, 1999; Smith, 1996). However, in contrast to findings from Sax & Arredondo's (1999) with four-year collegians, there was no statistically significant effect of annual family income on Hispanic or African American two-year student support for affirmative action in college admissions. Furthermore, previous research has noted African American support for affirmative action is more consistent, while Hispanic support is less cohesive and complex (Smith, 1996).

Upon being enacted, the original purposes of affirmative action were to eradicate the previous discrimination of African Americans and provide a nondiscriminatory society (Crosby, 1994). As members of underrepresented groups, African American two-year students disagreed with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions slightly more than Hispanic collegians did. Perhaps differences between African American and Hispanic support for affirmative action stem from the unique experiences of each group, the legacy of slavery endured by African Americans in contrast to the more recent disenfranchisement of voluntary Hispanic immigrants in association with affirmative action efforts.

Prior research has asserted that affirmative action provides advantages students of color in admissions through unfair exclusion of White students, leaving them to attend second- and third choice- institutions (D'Souza, 1992; Herrnstein & Murray, 1994; Raza, Anderson, & Custred, 1999). Yet, national data have suggested otherwise as the percentage of four-year students attending their first-choice institution was highest among White and Hispanic students (National Center for Education Statistics, 1996). Confirming earlier results, this study revealed over two-thirds of White and Hispanic two-year students were attending their first choice college, whereas 59.5% of African Americans were at their first choice institution. Still, college choice was not associated with or found to be a predictor of affirmative action attitudes for students affiliated with any the racial/ethnic groups.

A subsample was drawn from the larger student sample to examine affirmative action attitudes of two-year baccalaureate aspirants. While little research has examined student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions (Amirkhan et al., 1995; Sax & Arredondo, 1999), even less is known about two-year student affirmative action attitudes, particularly those seeking transfer in pursuit of bachelor's degrees. This study showed that race/ethnicity, gender, annual family income, political views, GPA, and views on racial discrimination influenced the odds of agreeing with abolishing affirmative action in college admissions.

Similar to earlier findings, logistic regression analyses for baccalaureate aspirants revealed that students of color and women were less likely to agree with abolishing affirmative action in comparison to Whites and males. Income and political views impacted support for abolishing affirmative action as higher income baccalaureate aspirants had greater odds of opposing affirmative action while more liberal students were more favorable toward retaining affirmative action in college admissions. Having a higher GPA also increased the odds of supporting affirmative action retrenchment in college admissions among baccalaureate aspirants. Lastly, believing racial discrimination is no longer a problem decreased affirmative action opposition among baccalaureate aspirants.

What do we now know about attitudes toward affirmative action among community college baccalaureate aspirants - an important segment of higher education previously neglected by researchers that was not evident before? This study demonstrates that two-year collegians have definite opinions regarding the use of affirmative action in college admissions that are associated with their personal backgrounds and political views. As many college students take the two-year option, the community college makes sense for a growing number of students because it is often the most academically, geographically and financially accessible to women and students of color (Townsend, 1999). Although the literature has indicated that entering a community college with baccalaureate aspirations reduces one's chances of obtaining a four-year degree, a preponderance of two-year college students do aspire to the baccalaureate degree. Consequently, it seems particularly relevant to consider the attitudes of baccalaureate aspiring, two-year students toward affirmative action in college admissions. Many community college students can be considered potential beneficiaries of affirmative action in college admissions, as many are first generation college attendees from low-income, racially/ethnically diverse communities. Higher education administrators need to be aware of student attitudes toward affirmative action at two- and four-year institutions. More specifically, understanding both two-and four-year student views of affirmative action in college admissions may assist educational leaders in revising or re-establishing policies and programming efforts as tools for enhancing campus diversity.

Recommendations for Policy, Practice, and Future Research

This study supports previous research on student attitudes toward affirmative action (Constantini & King, 1985; Sax & Arredondo, 1999; Smith, 1996). More importantly this study breaks new ground on affirmative action through its examination of two-year students. While this study has extended the literature related to college student attitudes toward affirmative action, this study focused solely on its use in college admissions. The results of this investigation are important and informative regarding two-year student views on affirmative action. Furthermore, the findings can be useful to two- and four-year administrators, academic professionals (e.g., admissions officers, transfer coordinators, and academic counselors), and students at two- and four-year institutions.

This study could be useful to community college administrators in disseminating information regarding educational enhancement opportunities at senior institutions to students with baccalaureate aspirations. As previously noted, many community college students fit the criteria of being a potential beneficiary of affirmative action efforts. By providing academic professionals and students with a clear understanding of the intended purposes of affirmative action and how these efforts are embodied, community college students can have a greater awareness of the policies and programs that seek to enhance educational access and success. For example, many four-year institutions have special admissions procedures that are carried out through Bridge/Transition programs or additional resources such as Student Support Services, each targeting recruitment and retention of first-generation, low-income, and students from underrepresented groups.

Educational leaders at four-year colleges and universities may find the findings of this study beneficial in gauging the attitudes of community college students' attitudes toward affirmative action, particularly those with aspirations for baccalaureate degrees. In addition, administrators at the four-year could use these data to gain a better portrait of the American college freshman regarding the use of affirmative action in college admissions. Furthermore, findings suggest that student affirmative action attitudes vary according to background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, and racial affect. Therefore, existing policies and programs should be revisited to more accurately denote what is meant by affirmative action on respective campuses, thereby addressing what role affirmative action should play in college admissions (i.e., race-, gender-or class-specific admissions policies). Moreover, diversity workshops could be designed to inform faculty and students of the institutional goals of affirmative action as well as to sensitize students to the realities of racial/ethnic participation, differential access, and disparities in educational outcomes and attainment for marginalized groups.

With respect to policy, this study suggests additional recommendations regarding the use of affirmative action in college admissions. First, at the two- and four-year level, educators should take an active role in deciding how affirmative action is framed on their respective campuses and in various functions (i.e., in admissions, financial aid, and employment). There are numerous forms of favoritism in college admissions (e.g., athletes, family members of philanthropists and alumni), yet these actions are often overlooked whereas affirmative action is scrutinized. In fact, opponents of affirmative action in college admissions often point to these policies as a euphemism for recruitment of unqualified applicants. However, students seeking to make the transition between two- and four year colleges should be made aware that affirmative action is not synonymous with tokenism and preferential treatment. The language used to describe affirmative action and how higher learning institutions choose to frame such policy and programming efforts (i.e., opportunity enhancing or quota systems) may shape student attitudes toward affirmative action in either positive or negative ways.

Findings from this study regarding White males are particularly disturbing as they are the most likely to agree with abolishing affirmative action. One way of addressing and shaping student views of affirmative action to more accurately reflect its intended purposes would be for college officials to have campus programs or workshops designed to educate all students but particularly White males about affirmative action policies (i.e., about the history, intent, and outcomes on college enrollments). In so doing, institutional leaders can set a tone conducive to valuing a diverse educational environment and tolerating differences among student groups.

Faculty, administrators and policy makers also need to reconsider who should participate in the current dialogue surrounding the use of affirmative action in higher education (Garcia, 1997). In this post Proposition 209 era, changing demographics suggest that students from underrepresented racial/ethnic groups will increasingly apply to college (Rendon & Hope, 1996), many of whom could be considered potential beneficiaries of affirmative action in college admissions. More students of color than Whites will forego the four-year college and attend community colleges due to their lack of finances, academic preparation, family obligations, and/or geographical restrictions.

As the present debate over the use of affirmative action stems from divergent public opinions regarding entitlement to educational access and opportunity, views of students disproportionately stratified in community colleges should be heard. College leaders at all levels need to foster inclusionary policies that support students as they aspire to attain their highest degree planned.

Future research should seek to add to the literature on student attitudes regarding other uses of affirmative action and forms of favoritism in college admissions (e.g., scholarships or special admissions for children of alumni and athletes). As previously noted, the measure of affirmative action in this study does not account for differential attitudes based on affirmative action being specified as race-, gender, or class-based. Social science research has proven beneficial in illustrating that opposition toward affirmative action is greatest among White males. However, additional research clarifying whether attitudinal differences are indicative of cooperative or competitive self-interest as related to affirmative action attitudes is needed, to more accurately dissect student attitudes toward affirmative action in terms of race, gender, and class-targeting. Thus, future research could benefit from measurement of student attitudes toward varying types of affirmative action programs and policies.

Second, future studies should seek to further examine two-year student attitudes toward affirmative action to uncover the extent to which this group has been exposed to affirmative action and is aware of the ongoing debate surrounding its use in college admissions. Future research utilizing qualitative methods of inquiry to gauge the extent to which students have been exposed and are aware of the current debate may be useful in understanding the various positions taken by two-year attendants regarding affirmative action.

Finally, this study lacks information regarding two-year student attitudes over time. Whereas this study utilizes cross-sectional data, further research is needed of a longitudinal nature. Longitudinal research would be most interesting with a two-year college student sample because it would be possible to examine the transition to four-year colleges and success at that level.

Future research should also examine Hispanic attitudes toward affirmative action with respect to intragroup differences. This investigation only resulted in one significant effect on the odds of support for abolishing affirmative action in college admissions for Hispanic students, whereas several variables were found to impact African American and White student affirmative action attitudes. Therefore, it would be valuable to disaggregate the sample to determine whether Mexicans, Puerto Ricans and other Latinos view affirmative action in college admissions differently. Additional analysis may explain what lies behind support for or opposition to affirmative action among these diverse Hispanic groups.

Finally, further investigation into affirmative action attitudes of two-year students should be done to ascertain the direct and indirect effects of various independent variables may possibly increase our understanding of how attitudes toward affirmative action. Examining the causal influences through path analytic approaches could inform our understanding of the role of student background characteristics, educational aspirations, self-interest, and racial affect in student attitudes toward affirmative action in college admissions. In addition, examining whether there are interactions and combined effects of the variables (e.g., annual family income and GPA with males) may add to our understanding of what variables are predictive of student affirmative action attitudes in college admissions. Lastly, other variables not included in this study may aid in explaining what influences or effects the odds of student support for or opposition to abolishing affirmative action in college admissions or other aspects of collegiate student life.

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APPENDIX A
1996 CIRP STUDENT INFORMATION FORM AND U.S. MAP OF CIRP PARTICIPATING INSTITUTIONS

PLEASE PRINT (one letter or number per box)

	FIRST	M I	LAST
NAME:			
ADDRESS:			
CITY:		STATE: ZIP:	PHONE: – –

When were you born?
Month (01-12) Day (01-31) Year

1996 STUDENT INFORMATION FORM

DIRECTIONS

Your responses will be read by an optical mark reader. Your careful observance of these few simple rules will be most appreciated.

- Use only black lead pencil (No. 2 is ideal).
- Make heavy black marks that fill the oval.
- Erase cleanly any answer you wish to change.
- Make no stray markings of any kind.

EXAMPLE:

Will marks made with ballpoint or felt-tip marker be properly read? Yes . . . ○ No . . . ●

PLEASE PROVIDE YOUR SOCIAL SECURITY NO.

Mark here if directed

FORM NO.: 110108

Dear Student:

The information in this form is being collected as part of a continuing study of higher education conducted jointly by the American Council on Education and the University of California at Los Angeles. Your participation in this research is being solicited in order to achieve a better understanding of how students are affected by their college experiences. Detailed information on the goals and design of this research program are furnished in research reports available from the Higher Education Research Institute at UCLA. Identifying information has been requested in order to make subsequent mail follow-up studies possible. Your responses will be held in the strictest professional confidence.

Sincerely, Alexander W. Astin

Alexander W. Astin, Director
Higher Education Research Institute

PLEASE USE #2 PENCIL

1. Your sex: ○ Male ○ Female

2. How old will you be on December 31 of this year? (Mark one)

16 or younger	○	21-24	○
17	○	25-29	○
18	○	30-39	○
19	○	40-54	○
20	○	55 or older	○

3. In what year did you graduate from high school? (Mark one)

1996	○	Did not graduate but passed G.E.D. test	○
1995	○		
1994	○	Never completed high school	○
1993 or earlier	○		

4. Are you enrolled (or enrolling) as a: (Mark one)
Full-time student? ○
Part-time student? ○

5. How many miles is this college from your permanent home? (Mark one)
5 or less ○ 11-50 ○ 101-500 ○
6-10 ○ 51-100 ○ Over 500 ○

6. What was your average grade in high school? (Mark one)
A or A+ ○ B ○ C ○
A– ○ B– ○ D ○
B+ ○ C+ ○

7. What were your scores on the SAT and/or ACT?
SAT VERBAL ☐☐☐
SAT MATH ☐☐☐
ACT Composite ☐☐

8. Citizenship status:
○ U.S. citizen
○ Permanent resident (green card)
○ Neither

9. During high school (grades 9-12) how many years did you study each of the following subjects? (Mark one for each item)

	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
English	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Mathematics	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Foreign Language	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Physical Science	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Biological Science	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
History/Am. Govt.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Computer Science	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Arts and/or Music	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

10. Prior to this term, have you ever taken courses for credit at this institution?
○ Yes ○ No

11. Since leaving high school, have you ever taken courses at any other institution? (Mark all that apply in each column)

	For Credit	Not for Credit
Yes, at a community/junior college	○	○
Yes, at a 4-yr. college or university	○	○
Yes, at some other postsecondary school (For example, technical, vocational, business)	○	○

12. Where do you plan to live during the fall term? (Mark one)

With parents or relatives	○
Other private home, apartment or room	○
College dormitory	○
Fraternity or sorority house	○
Other campus student housing	○
Other	○

13. Is this college your: (Mark one)
First choice? ○
Second choice? ○
Third choice? ○
Less than third choice? ○

14. To how many colleges other than this one did you apply for admission this year?
○ No other 1 ○ 3 ○ 5 ○
2 ○ 4 ○ 6 or more ○

Note: If you applied to no other college, skip to item 16.

15. How many other acceptances did you receive this year? (Mark one)
None ○ 1 ○ 3 ○ 5 ○
2 ○ 4 ○ 6 or more ○

16. What is the highest academic degree that you intend to obtain? (Mark one in each column)

	[illegible]	[illegible]
None	○	○
Vocational certificate	○	○
Associate (A.A. or equivalent)	○	○
Bachelor's degree (B.A., B.S., etc.)	○	○
Master's degree (M.A., M.S., etc.)	○	○
Ph.D. or Ed.D.	○	○
M.D., D.O., D.D.S., or D.V.M.	○	○
LL.B. or J.D. (Law)	○	○
B.D. or M.DIV. (Divinity)	○	○
Other	○	○

17. Is English your native language?
○ Yes ○ No

18. Are your parents: (Mark one)
Both alive and living with each other? ○
Both alive, divorced or living apart? ○
One or both deceased? ○

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19. How much of your first year's educational expenses (room, board, tuition, and fees) do you expect to cover from each of the sources listed below? (Mark one answer for each possible source)

a. My Own or Family Resources					
Parents, other relatives or friends	○	○	○	○	○
Spouse	○	○	○	○	○
Savings from summer work	○	○	○	○	○
Other savings	○	○	○	○	○
Part-time job on campus	○	○	○	○	○
Part-time job off campus	○	○	○	○	○
Full-time job while in college	○	○	○	○	○
b. Aid Which Need Not Be Repaid					
Pell Grant	○	○	○	○	
Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grant	○	○	○	○	
State Scholarship or Grant	○	○	○	○	
College Work-Study Grant	○	○	○	○	
College Grant/Scholarship (other than above)	○	○	○	○	○
Vocational Rehabilitation funds	○	○	○	○	○
Other private grant	○	○	○	○	○
Other Government Aid (ROTC, BIA, GI/military benefits, etc.)	○	○	○	○	○
c. Aid Which Must Be Repaid					
Stafford Loan (GSL)	○	○	○	○	
Perkins Loan	○	○	○	○	
Other College Loan	○	○	○	○	○
Other Loan	○	○	○	○	○
d. Other Than Above	○	○	○	○	○

Are you: (Mark all that apply)

White/Caucasian	○
African American/Black	○
American Indian	○
Asian American/Asian	○
Mexican American/Chicano	○
Puerto Rican	○
Other Latino	○
Other	○

21. Current religious preference: (Mark one in each column)

Baptist	○	○	○
Buddhist	○	○	○
Eastern Orthodox	○	○	○
Episcopal	○	○	○
Islamic	○	○	○
Jewish	○	○	○
LDS (Mormon)	○	○	○
Lutheran	○	○	○
Methodist	○	○	○
Presbyterian	○	○	○
Quaker	○	○	○
Roman Catholic	○	○	○
Seventh Day Adventist	○	○	○
United Church of Christ	○	○	○
Other Christian	○	○	○
Other Religion	○	○	○
None	○	○	○

22. Do you consider yourself a born-again Christian? ○ Yes ○ No

23. For the activities below, indicate which ones you did during the past year. If you engaged in an activity frequently, mark Ⓕ. If you engaged in an activity one or more times, but not frequently, mark Ⓞ (occasionally). Mark Ⓝ (Not at all) if you have not performed the activity during the past year.

(Mark one for each item)

Attended a religious service	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Was bored in class	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Participated in organized demonstrations	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Tutored another student	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Studied with other students	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Was a guest in a teacher's home	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Smoked cigarettes	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Drank beer	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Drank wine or liquor	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Felt overwhelmed by all I had to do	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Felt depressed	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Performed volunteer work	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Played a musical instrument	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Asked a teacher for advice after class	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Overslept and missed class or appointment	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Discussed politics	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Worked in a local, state or national political campaign	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Voted in a student election	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Socialized with someone of another racial/ethnic group	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Missed school due to employment	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Lost my temper	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Took a prescribed anti-depressant	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Utilized nontraditional medicine (acupuncture, homeopathy, etc.)	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ
Found it difficult to study at home	Ⓕ	Ⓞ	Ⓝ

24. Rate yourself on each of the following traits as compared with the average person your age. We want the most accurate estimate of how you see yourself.

(Mark one in each row)

Academic ability	○	○	○	○	○
Artistic ability	○	○	○	○	○
Competitiveness	○	○	○	○	○
Cooperativeness	○	○	○	○	○
Creativity	○	○	○	○	○
Drive to achieve	○	○	○	○	○
Emotional health	○	○	○	○	○
Leadership ability	○	○	○	○	○
Mathematical ability	○	○	○	○	○
Physical health	○	○	○	○	○
Popularity	○	○	○	○	○
Public speaking ability	○	○	○	○	○
Self-confidence (intellectual)	○	○	○	○	○
Self-confidence (social)	○	○	○	○	○
Self-understanding	○	○	○	○	○
Spirituality	○	○	○	○	○
Understanding of others	○	○	○	○	○
Writing ability	○	○	○	○	○

25. What is the highest level of formal education obtained by your parents?

(Mark one in each column)

	Father	Mother
Grammar school or less	○	○
Some high school	○	○
High school graduate	○	○
Postsecondary school other than college	○	○
Some college	○	○
College degree	○	○
Some graduate school	○	○
Graduate degree	○	○

26. What is your best estimate of your parents' total income last year? Consider income from all sources before taxes. (Mark one)

○ Less than $6,000	○ $40,000-49,999
○ $6,000-9,999	○ $50,000-59,999
○ $10,000-14,999	○ $60,000-74,999
○ $15,000-19,999	○ $75,000-99,999
○ $20,000-24,999	○ $100,000-149,999
○ $25,000-29,999	○ $150,000-199,999
○ $30,000-39,999	○ $200,000 or more

27. Do you have a disability? (Mark all that apply)

None	○
Hearing	○
Speech	○
Orthopedic	○
Learning disability	○
Health-related	○
Partially sighted or blind	○
Other	○

28. How many persons are currently dependent on your parents for support (include yourself and your parents, if applicable)?

○ 1 ○ 2 ○ 3 ○ 4 ○ 5 ○ 6 or more

29. In deciding to go to college, how important to you was each of the following reasons?

(Mark one answer for each possible reason)

My parents wanted me to go	○	○	○
I could not find a job	○	○	○
Wanted to get away from home	○	○	○
To be able to get a better job	○	○	○
To gain a general education and appreciation of ideas	○	○	○
To improve my reading and study skills	○	○	○
There was nothing better to do	○	○	○
To make me a more cultured person	○	○	○
To be able to make more money	○	○	○
To learn more about things that interest me	○	○	○
A mentor/role model encouraged me to go	○	○	○
To prove to others I could succeed	○	○	○

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30. Mark **only three** responses, **one** in each column.

NOTE: If your father or mother is deceased, please indicate his or her last occupation.

	Your probable career occupation	Your father's occupation	Your mother's occupation
Accountant or actuary	○	○	○
Actor or entertainer	○	○	○
Architect or urban planner	○	○	○
Artist	○	○	○
Business (clerical)	○	○	○
Business executive (management, administrator)	○	○	○
Business owner or proprietor	○	○	○
Business salesperson or buyer	○	○	○
Clergy (minister, priest)	○	○	○
Clergy (other religious)	○	○	○
Clinical psychologist	○	○	○
College administrator/staff	○	○	○
College teacher	○	○	○
Computer programmer or analyst	○	○	○
Conservationist or forester	○	○	○
Dentist (including orthodontist)	○	○	○
Dietitian or home economist	○	○	○
Engineer	○	○	○
Farmer or rancher	○	○	○
Foreign service worker (including diplomat)	○	○	○
Homemaker (full-time)	○	○	○
Interior decorator (including designer)	○	○	○
Lab technician or hygienist	○	○	○
Law enforcement officer	○	○	○
Lawyer (attorney) or judge	○	○	○
Military service (career)	○	○	○
Musician (performer, composer)	○	○	○
Nurse	○	○	○
Optometrist	○	○	○
Pharmacist	○	○	○
Physician	○	○	○
Policymaker/Government	○	○	○
School counselor	○	○	○
School principal or superintendent	○	○	○
Scientific researcher	○	○	○
Social, welfare or recreation worker	○	○	○
Therapist (physical, occupational speech)	○	○	○
Teacher or administrator (elementary)	○	○	○
Teacher or administrator (secondary)	○	○	○
Veterinarian	○	○	○
Writer or journalist	○	○	○
Skilled trades	○	○	○
Other	○		
Undecided	○		
Laborer (unskilled)		○	○
Semi-skilled worker		○	○
Other occupation		○	○
Unemployed		○	○

31. Mark **one** in each row:

	Agree Strongly	Agree Somewhat	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree Strongly
The Federal government is not doing enough to control environmental pollution	○	○	○	○
The Federal government should raise taxes to reduce the deficit	○	○	○	○
There is too much concern in the courts for the rights of criminals	○	○	○	○
Abortion should be legal	○	○	○	○
The death penalty should be abolished	○	○	○	○
If two people really like each other, it's all right for them to have sex even if they've known each other for only a very short time	○	○	○	○
The activities of married women are best confined to the home and family	○	○	○	○
Marijuana should be legalized	○	○	○	○
It is important to have laws prohibiting homosexual relationships	○	○	○	○
Employers should be allowed to require drug testing of employees or job applicants	○	○	○	○
The federal government should do more to control the sale of handguns	○	○	○	○
A national health care plan is needed to cover everybody's medical costs	○	○	○	○
Racial discrimination is no longer a major problem in America	○	○	○	○
Realistically, an individual can do little to bring about changes in our society	○	○	○	○
Wealthy people should pay a larger share of taxes than they do now	○	○	○	○
Colleges should prohibit racist/sexist speech on campus	○	○	○	○
People should not obey laws which violate their personal values	○	○	○	○
Affirmative action in college admissions should be abolished	○	○	○	○
Undocumented immigrants should be denied access to public education	○	○	○	○
All official federal and state documents should be printed in English only	○	○	○	○

32. During your last year in high school, how much time did you spend during a typical week doing the following activities?

Hours per week:	None	Less than one	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	Over 20
Studying/homework	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Socializing with friends	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Talking with teachers outside of class	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Exercise or sports	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Partying	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Working (for pay)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Volunteer work	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Student clubs/groups	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Watching TV	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Housework/childcare	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Reading for pleasure	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Playing video games	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Prayer/meditation	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

33. Do you have any concern about your ability to finance your college education? (Mark **one**)

None (I am confident that I will have sufficient funds)	○
Some (but I probably will have enough funds)	○
Major (not sure I will have enough funds to complete college)	○

34. How would you characterize your political views? (Mark **one**)

Far left	○
Liberal	○
Middle-of-the-road	○
Conservative	○
Far right	○

35. Below are some reasons that might have influenced your decision to attend this particular college. How important was each reason in your decision to come here? (Mark **one** answer for each possible reason)

	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
My relatives wanted me to come here	○	○	○
My teacher advised me	○	○	○
This college has a very good academic reputation	○	○	○
This college has a good reputation for its social activities	○	○	○
I was offered financial assistance	○	○	○
This college offers special educational programs	○	○	○
This college has low tuition	○	○	○
High school counselor advised me	○	○	○
Private college counselor advised me	○	○	○
I wanted to live near home	○	○	○
A friend suggested attending	○	○	○
A college rep. recruited me	○	○	○
The athletic department recruited me	○	○	○
Not offered aid by first choice	○	○	○
This college's graduates gain admission to top graduate/professional schools	○	○	○
This college's graduates get good jobs	○	○	○
I was attracted by the religious affiliation/orientation of the college	○	○	○
I wanted to go to a school about the size of this college	○	○	○
Not accepted anywhere else	○	○	○
Rankings in national magazines	○	○	○

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36. **Below is a list of different undergraduate major fields grouped into general categories. Mark only one oval to indicate your probable field of study.**

ARTS AND HUMANITIES
Art, fine and applied ○
English (language and literature) ○
History ○
Journalism ○
Language and Literature (except English) ○
Music ○
Philosophy ○
Speech ○
Theater or Drama ○
Theology or Religion ○
Other Arts and Humanities ○

BIOLOGICAL SCIENCE
Biology (general) ○
Biochemistry or Biophysics ○
Botany ○
Environmental Science ○
Marine (Life) Science ○
Microbiology or Bacteriology ○
Zoology ○
Other Biological Science ○

BUSINESS
Accounting ○
Business Admin. (general) ○
Finance ○
International Business ○
Marketing ○
Management ○
Secretarial Studies ○
Other Business ○

EDUCATION
Business Education ○
Elementary Education ○
Music or Art Education ○
Physical Education or Recreation ○
Secondary Education ○
Special Education ○
Other Education ○

ENGINEERING
Aeronautical or Astronautical Eng. ○
Civil Engineering ○
Chemical Engineering ○
Electrical or Electronic Engineering ○
Industrial Engineering ○
Mechanical Engineering ○
Other Engineering ○

PHYSICAL SCIENCE
Astronomy ○
Atmospheric Science (incl. Meteorology) ○
Chemistry ○
Earth Science ○
Marine Science (incl. Oceanography) ○
Mathematics ○
Physics ○
Statistics ○
Other Physical Science ○

PROFESSIONAL
Architecture or Urban Planning ○
Home Economics ○
Health Technology (medical, dental, laboratory) ○
Library or Archival Science ○
Nursing ○
Pharmacy ○
Predental, Premedicine, Preveterinary ○
Therapy (occupational, physical, speech) ○
Other Professional ○

SOCIAL SCIENCE
Anthropology ○
Economics ○
Ethnic Studies ○
Geography ○
Political Science (gov't., international relations) ○
Psychology ○
Social Work ○
Sociology ○
Women's Studies ○
Other Social Science ○

TECHNICAL
Building Trades ○
Data Processing or Computer Programming ○
Drafting or Design ○
Electronics ○
Mechanics ○
Other Technical ○

OTHER FIELDS
Agriculture ○
Communications ○
Computer Science ○
Forestry ○
Law Enforcement ○
Military Science ○
Other Field ○
Undecided ○

◘○■■■○○○○■■■○■○■■○○○
DO NOT WRITE IN THIS AREA

37. **Please indicate the importance to you personally of each of the following:**
(Mark one for each item)

	Essential	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Becoming accomplished in one of the performing arts (acting, dancing, etc.)	○	○	○	○
Becoming an authority in my field	○	○	○	○
Obtaining recognition from my colleagues for contributions to my special field	○	○	○	○
Influencing the political structure	○	○	○	○
Influencing social values	○	○	○	○
Raising a family	○	○	○	○
Having administrative responsibility for the work of others	○	○	○	○
Being very well off financially	○	○	○	○
Helping others who are in difficulty	○	○	○	○
Making a theoretical contribution to science	○	○	○	○
Writing original works (poems, novels, short stories, etc.)	○	○	○	○
Creating artistic work (painting, sculpture, decorating, etc.)	○	○	○	○
Becoming successful in a business of my own	○	○	○	○
Becoming involved in programs to clean up the environment	○	○	○	○
Developing a meaningful philosophy of life	○	○	○	○
Participating in a community action program	○	○	○	○
Helping to promote racial understanding	○	○	○	○
Keeping up to date with political affairs	○	○	○	○
Becoming a community leader	○	○	○	○

38. **What is your best guess as to the chances that you will:**
(Mark one for each item)

	Very Good Chance	Some Chance	Very Little Chance	No Chance
Change major field?	○	○	○	○
Change career choice?	○	○	○	○
Fail one or more courses?	○	○	○	○
Graduate with honors?	○	○	○	○
Be elected to a student office?	○	○	○	○
Get a job to help pay for college expenses?	○	○	○	○
Work full time while attending college?	○	○	○	○
Join a social fraternity, sorority, or club?	○	○	○	○
Play varsity/intercollegiate athletics?	○	○	○	○
Be elected to an academic honor society?	○	○	○	○
Make at least a "B" average?	○	○	○	○
Need extra time to complete your degree requirements?	○	○	○	○
Get a bachelor's degree (B.A., B.S., etc.)?	○	○	○	○
Participate in student protests or demonstrations?	○	○	○	○
Drop out of this college temporarily (exclude transferring)?	○	○	○	○
Drop out permanently (exclude transferring)?	○	○	○	○
Transfer to another college before graduating?	○	○	○	○
Be satisfied with your college?	○	○	○	○
Get married while in college? (skip if married)	○	○	○	○
Participate in volunteer or community service work?	○	○	○	○
Seek personal counseling?	○	○	○	○

39. **The Higher Education Research Institute at UCLA actively encourages the colleges that participate in this survey to conduct local studies of their students. If these studies involve collecting follow-up data, it is necessary for the institution to know the students' ID numbers so that follow-up data can be linked with the data from this survey. If your college asks for a tape copy of the data and signs an agreement to use it only for research purposes, do we have your permission to include your ID number in such a tape?** Yes ○ No ○

The remaining ovals are provided for questions specifically designed by your college rather than the Higher Education Research Institute. If your college has chosen to use the ovals, please observe carefully the supplemental directions given to you.

40. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
41. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
42. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
43. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
44. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
45. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
46. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
47. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
48. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
49. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
50. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
51. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
52. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
53. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○
54. ○ ○ ○ ○ ○

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THANK YOU!

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- Alabama
- Arkansas
- Arizona
- California
- Colorado
- Connecticut
- Florida
- Georgia
- Hawaii
- Illinois
- Indiana
- Iowa
- Kansas
- Kentucky
- Louisiana
- Maryland
- Massachusetts
- Michigan
- Minnesota
- New York
- North Carolina
- Pennsylvania
- South Carolina
- South Dakota
- Tennessee
- Texas
- Wisconsin
- Wyoming

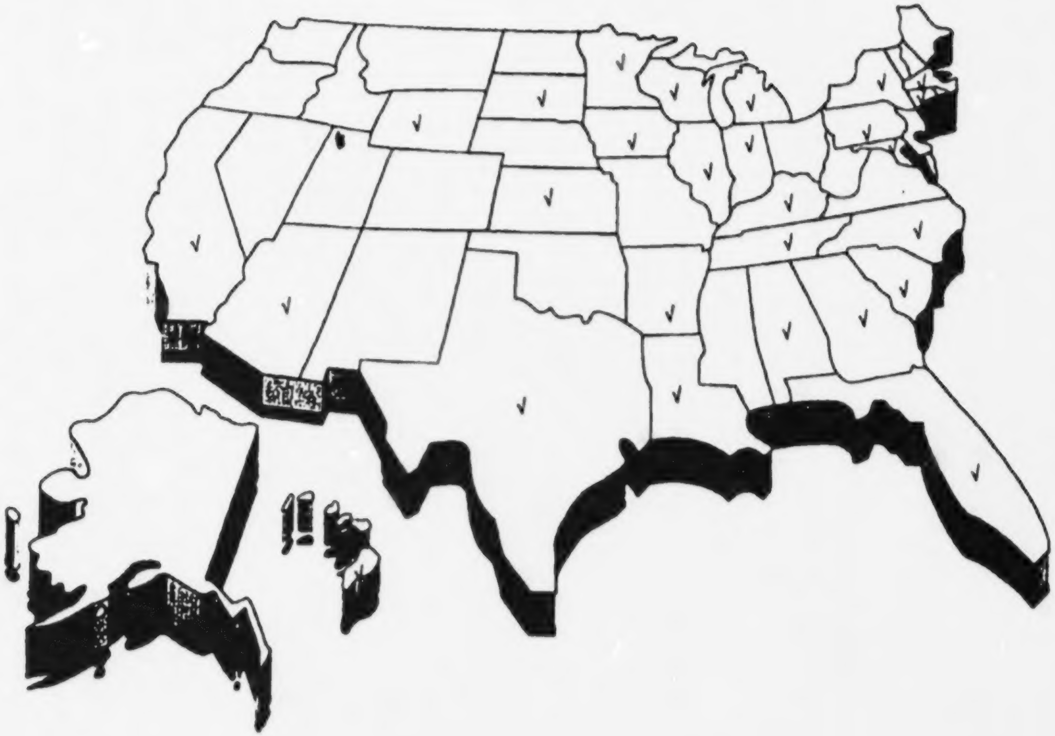

Figure A1. State representation of 1996 CIRP two-year institutional participants.

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APPENDIX B
CROSS-TABULATIONS AND CHI-SQUARE TESTS

Crosstabs - African Americans

Case Processing Summary

	Cases	
	Valid	
	N	Percent
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action	2079	85.7%
Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action	2073	85.5%
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action	1933	79.7%
AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action	2025	83.5%
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action	2045	84.3%
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action	2074	85.5%
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action	1933	79.7%

Case Processing Summary

	Cases			
	Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action	346	14.3%	2425	100.0%
Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action	352	14.5%	2425	100.0%
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action	492	20.3%	2425	100.0%
AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action	400	16.5%	2425	100.0%
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action	380	15.7%	2425	100.0%
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action	351	14.5%	2425	100.0%
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action	492	20.3%	2425	100.0%

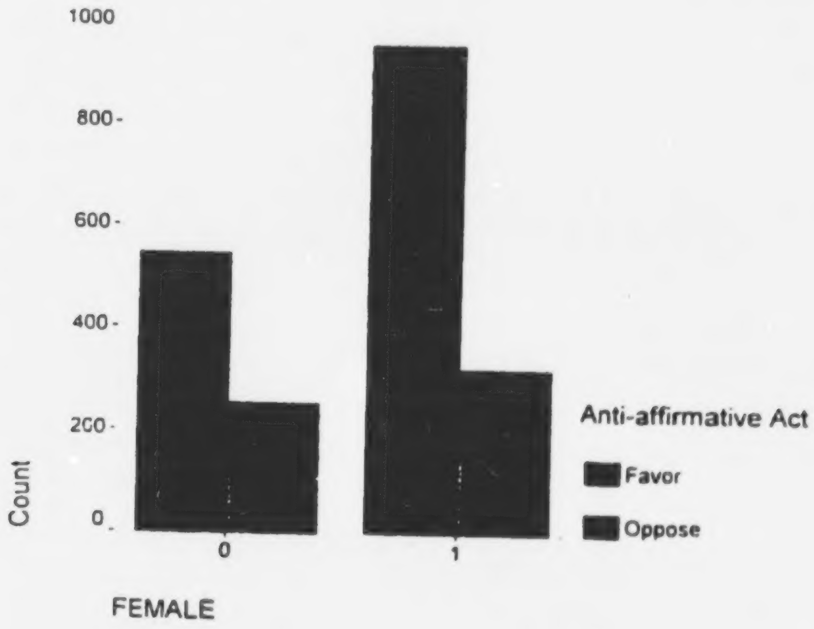
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.697[b]	1	.001		
Continuity Correction[a]	10.370	1	.001		
Likelihood Ratio	10.598	1	.001		
Fisher's Exact Test				.001	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	10.692	1	.001		
N of Valid Cases	2079				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 221.54



Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action

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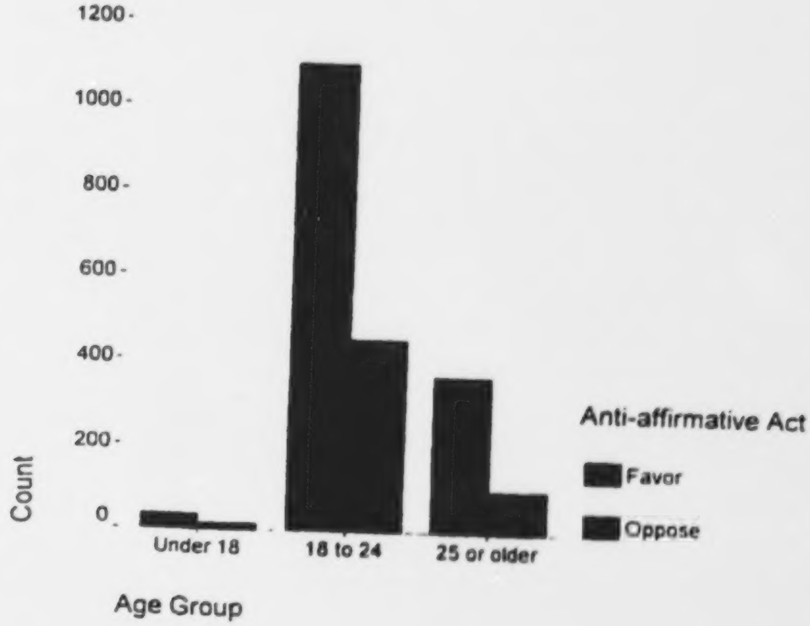
Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10.710[a]	2	.005
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	11.100	2	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.965	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	2073		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.27.



GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.447[a]	3	.038
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	8.289	3	.040
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.395	1	.065
N of Valid Cases	1933		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 37.56

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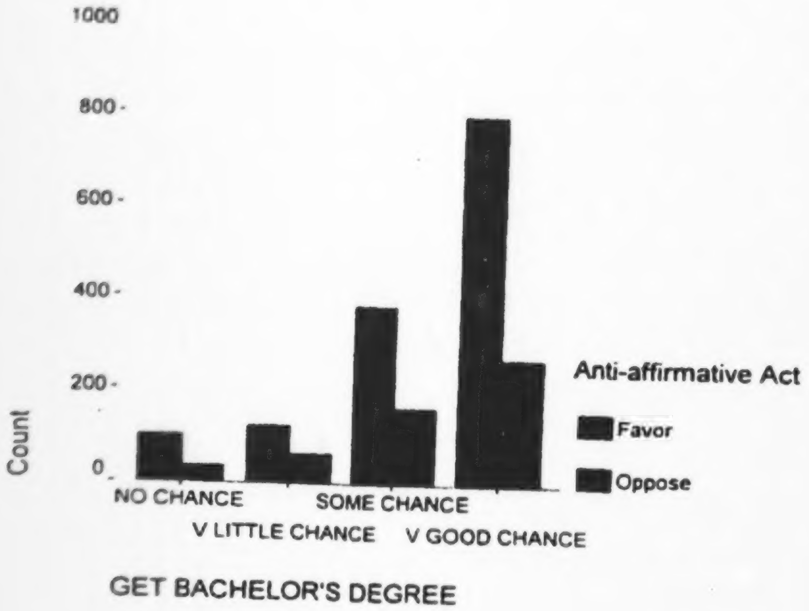
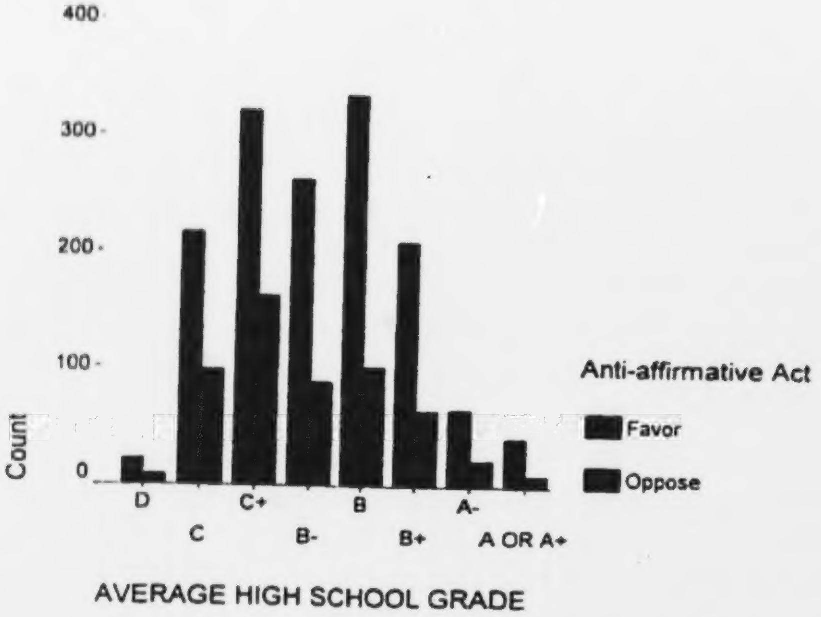


AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.233[a]	7	.005
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	20.119	7	.005
Linear-by-Linear Association	13.338	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	2025		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.48.

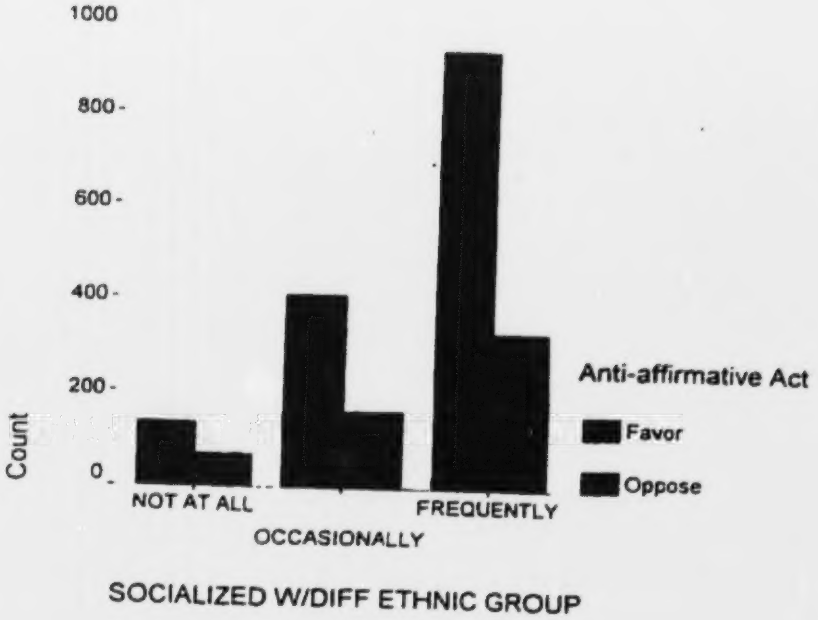


SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.018[a]	2	.049
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	5.833	2	.054
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.469	1	.019
N of Valid Cases	2045		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 56.34.

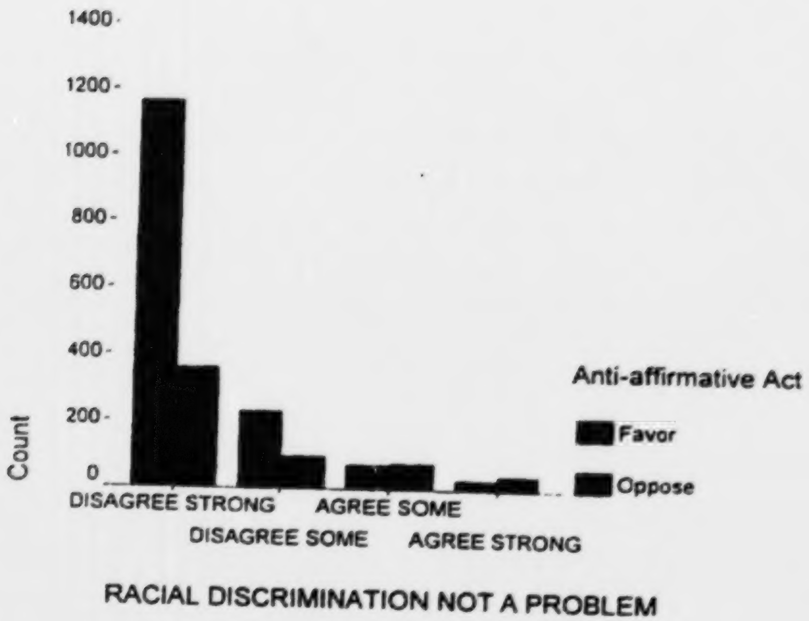


RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	90.790[a]	3	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	82.153	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	84.014	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	2074		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.24.

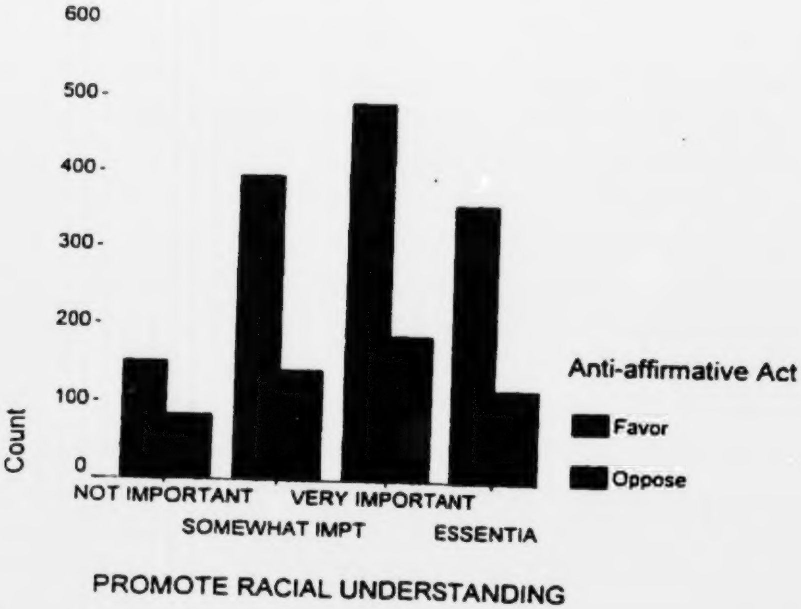


PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	9.538[a]	3	.023
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	9.188	3	.027
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.368	1	.021
N of Valid Cases	1933		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 65.07


600
500
400
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200
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Count
NOT IMPORTANT
SOMEWHAT IMPT
VERY IMPORTANT
ESSENTIA
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING
Anti-affirmative Act
Favor
Oppose

Crosstabs - Hispanics

Case Processing Summary

	Cases	
	Valid	
	N	Percent
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action	1954	85.0%
Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action	1944	84.5%
Family Income * Anti-affirmative Action	1650	71.7%
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action	1802	78.3%
AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action	1899	82.6%
College Choice -- This Coll * Anti-affirmative Action	1933	84.0%
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action	1927	83.8%
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action	1947	84.7%
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action	1804	78.4%

Case Processing Summary

	Cases			
	Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action	346	15.0%	2300	100.0%
Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action	356	15.5%	2300	100.0%
Family Income * Anti-affirmative Action	650	28.3%	2300	100.0%
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action	498	21.7%	2300	100.0%
AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action	401	17.4%	2300	100.0%
College Choice -- This Coll * Anti-affirmative Action	367	16.0%	2300	100.0%
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action	373	16.2%	2300	100.0%
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action	353	15.3%	2300	100.0%
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action	496	21.6%	2300	100.0%

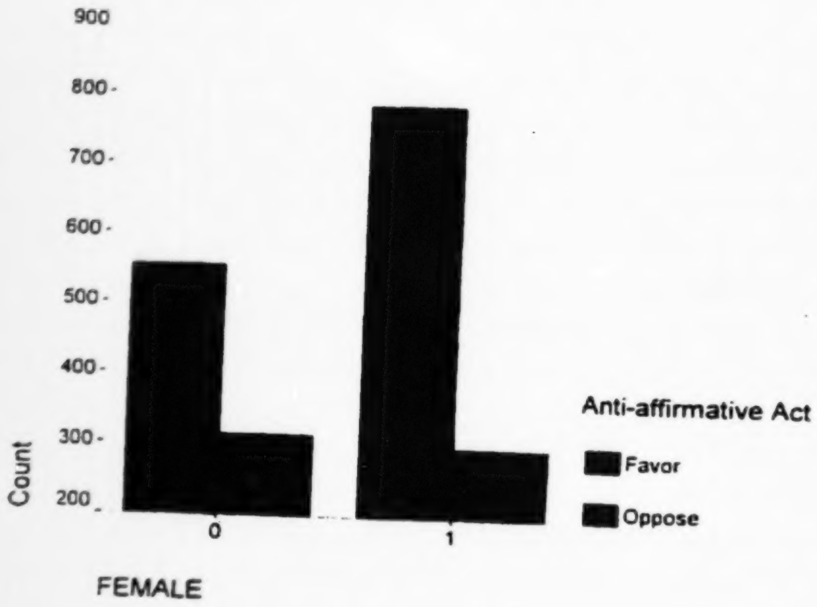
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.854[b]	1	.000		
Continuity Correction[a]	16.454	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	16.802	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	16.846	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	1954				

[a] Computed only for a 2x2 table

[b] 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 272 17

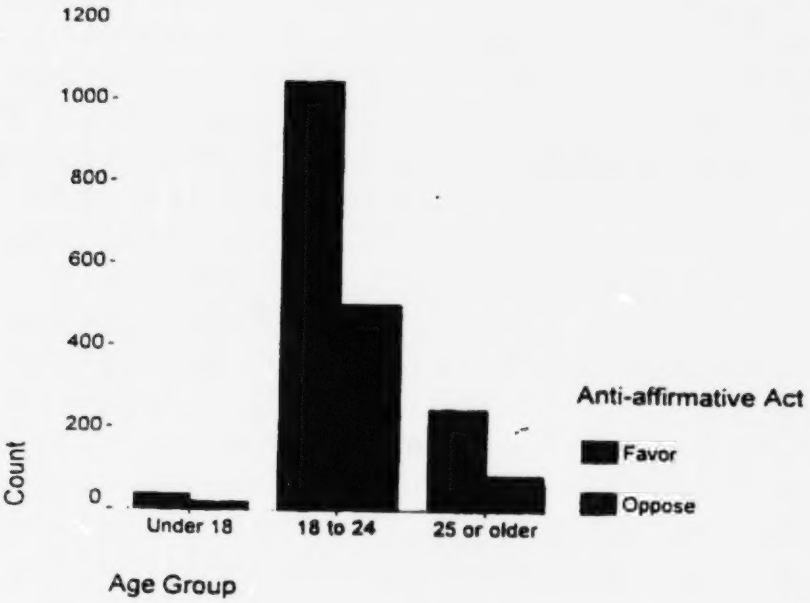


Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.191[a]	2	.075
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	5.311	2	.070
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.028	1	.025
N of Valid Cases	1944		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.51.

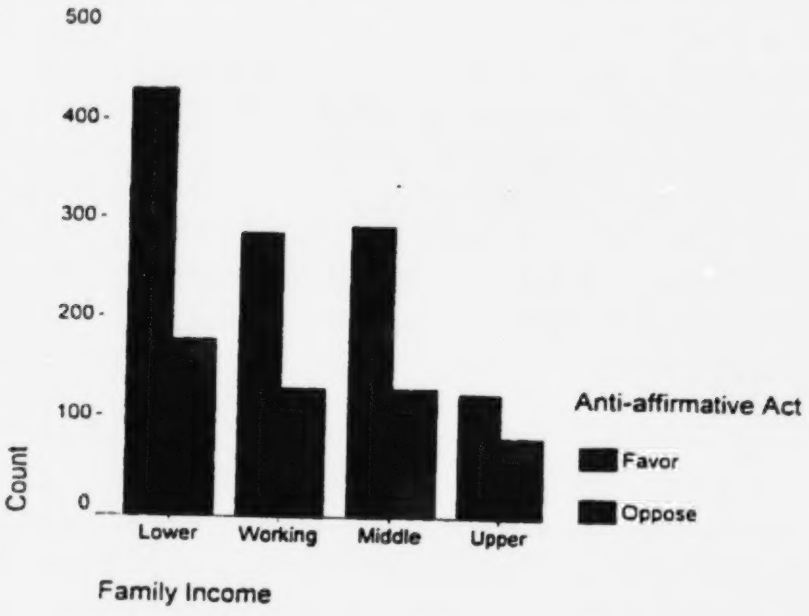


Family Income * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.900[a]	3	.048
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	7.658	3	.054
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.936	1	.026
N of Valid Cases	1650		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 64.11.

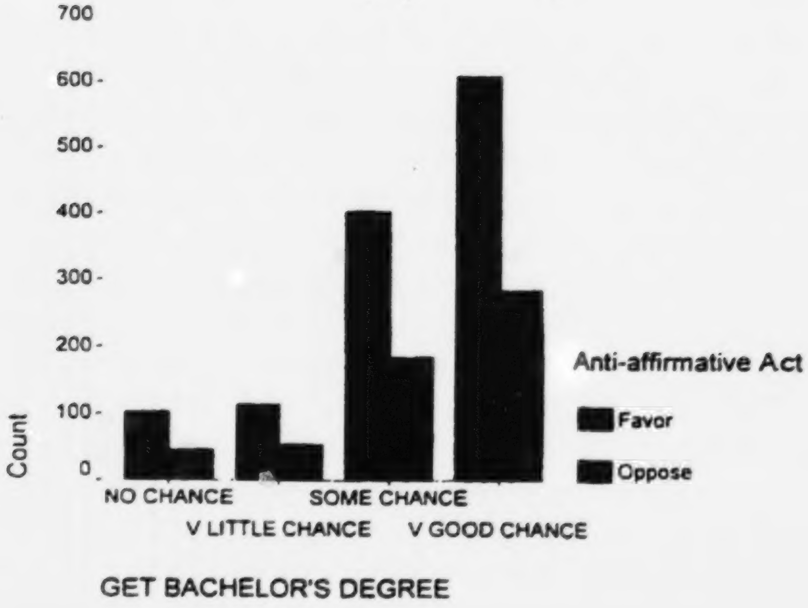


GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.105[a]	3	.991
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	.105	3	.991
Linear-by-Linear Association	.042	1	.838
N of Valid Cases	1802		

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 47.21

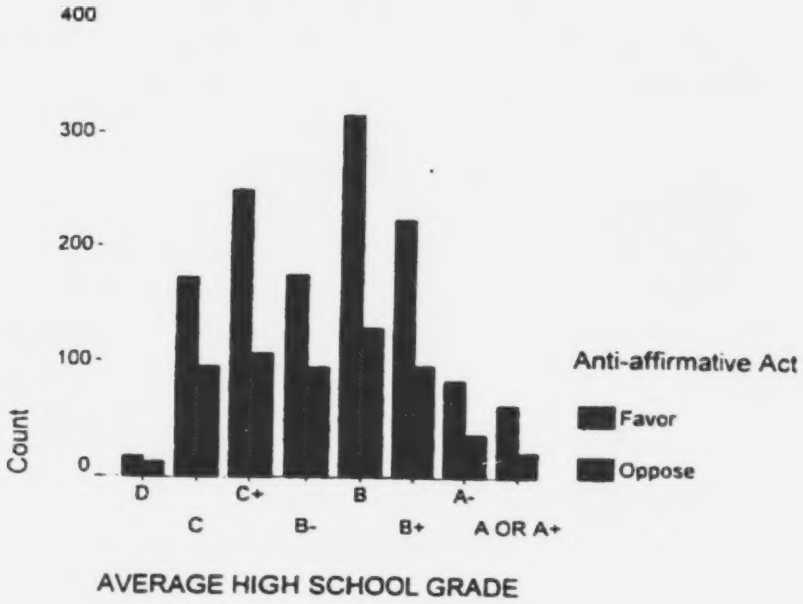


AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.678[a]	7	.277
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	8.576	7	.285
Linear-by-Linear Association	3.833	1	.050
N of Valid Cases	1899		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9.73.

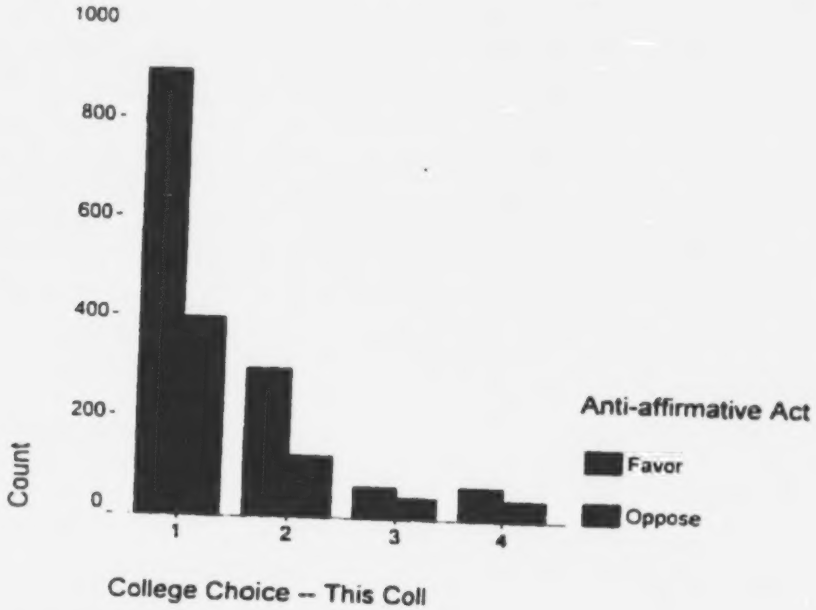


College Choice -- This Coll * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.295[a]	3	.040
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	8.014	3	.046
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.412	1	.036
N of Valid Cases	1933		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 33.91

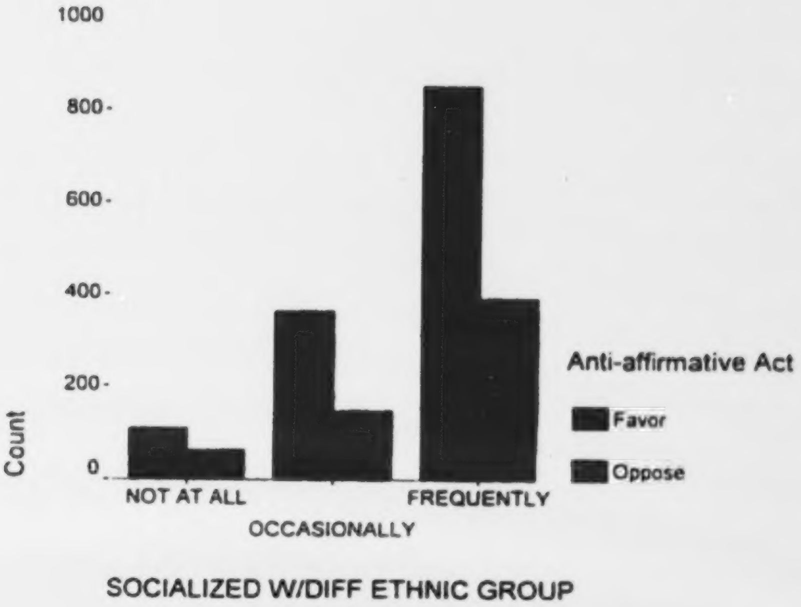


SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.901[a]	2	.142
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	3.850	2	.146
Linear-by-Linear Association	.273	1	.601
N of Valid Cases	1927		

a. 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 54.36.



RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	63.336[a]	3	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	59.884	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	57.373	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	1947		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.12.

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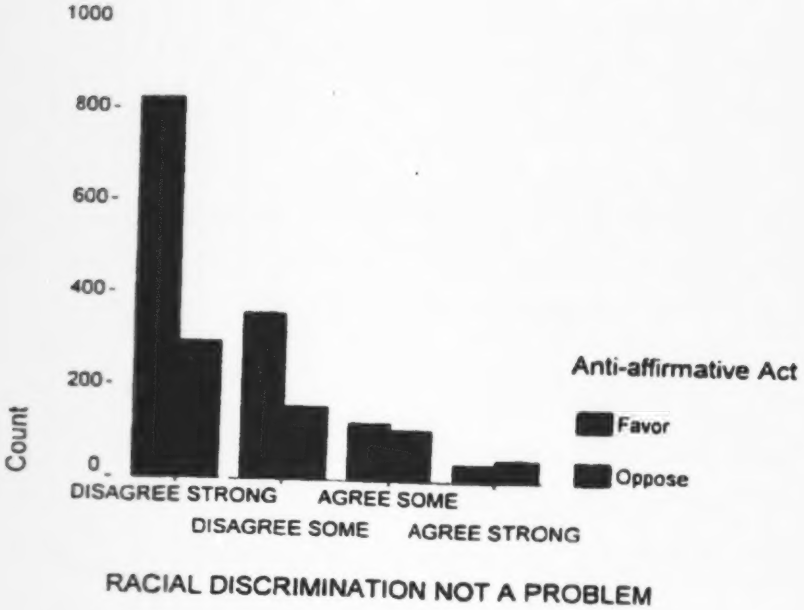
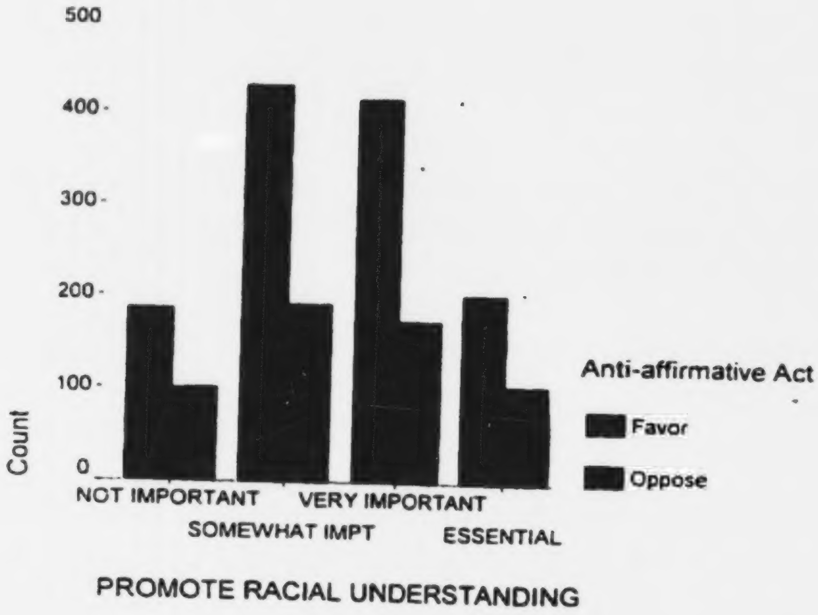


PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.927[a]	3	.270
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	3.901	3	.272
Linear-by-Linear Association	.161	1	.688
N of Valid Cases	1804		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 90.84.


500
400
300
200
100
0
Count
NOT IMPORTANT
SOMEWHAT IMPT
VERY IMPORTANT
ESSENTIAL
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING
Anti-affirmative Act
Favor
Oppose

Crosstabs - Whites

Case Processing Summary

	Cases	
	Valid	
	N	Percent
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action	13807	88.4%
Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action	13759	88.1%
Family Income * Anti-affirmative Action	11635	74.5%
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action	13108	84.0%
TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE * Anti-affirmative Action	13070	83.7%
AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action	13599	87.1%
College Choice -- This Coll * Anti-affirmative Action	13705	87.8%
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action	13695	87.7%
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action	13761	88.1%
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action	13166	84.3%

Case Processing Summary

	Cases			
	Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action	1807	11.6%	15614	100.0%
Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action	1855	11.9%	15614	100.0%
Family Income * Anti-affirmative Action	3979	25.5%	15614	100.0%
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action	2506	16.0%	15614	100.0%
TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE * Anti-affirmative Action	2544	16.3%	15614	100.0%
AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action	2015	12.9%	15614	100.0%
College Choice -- This Coll * Anti-affirmative Action	1909	12.2%	15614	100.0%
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action	1919	12.3%	15614	100.0%
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action	1853	11.9%	15614	100.0%
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action	2448	15.7%	15614	100.0%

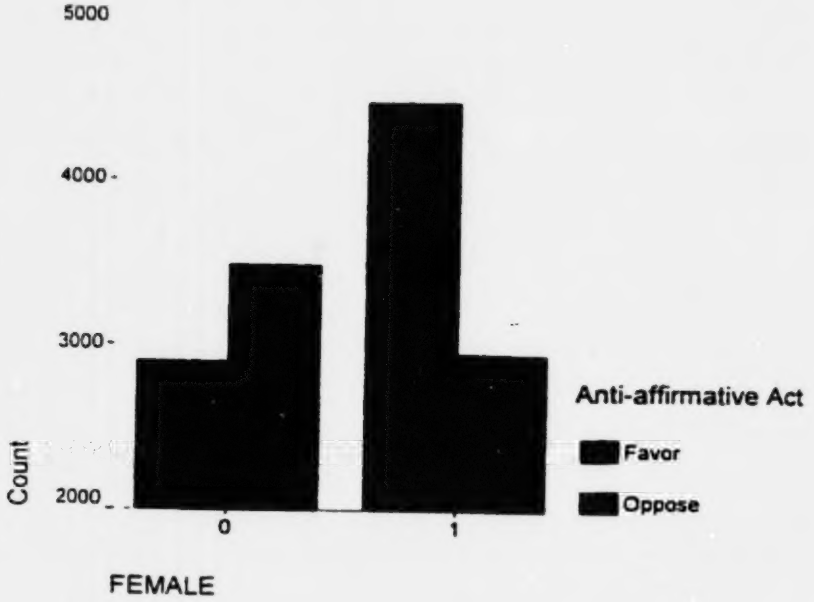
FEMALE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	306.017[b]	1	.000		
Continuity Correction[a]	305.419	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	306.879	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	305.995	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	13807				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2969.82.

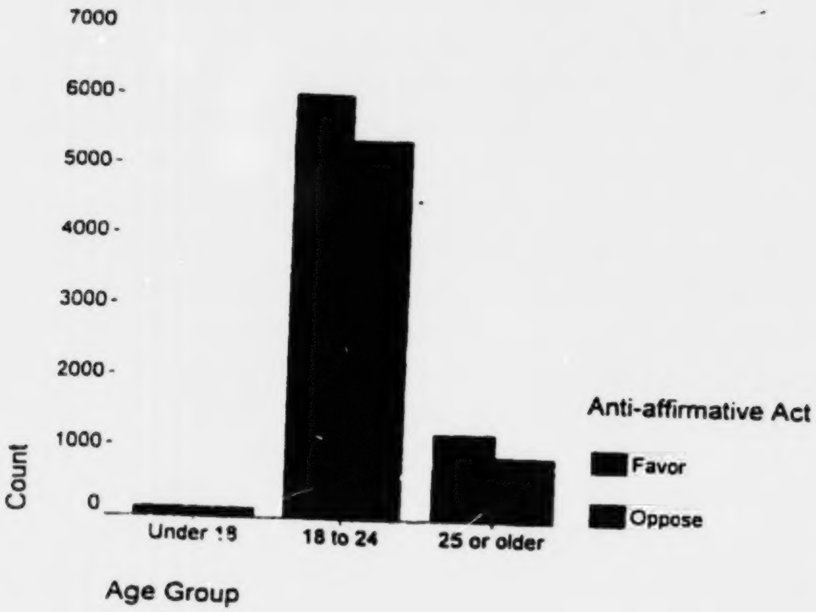


Age Group * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.504[a]	2	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	15.562	2	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.766	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	13759		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 121.00

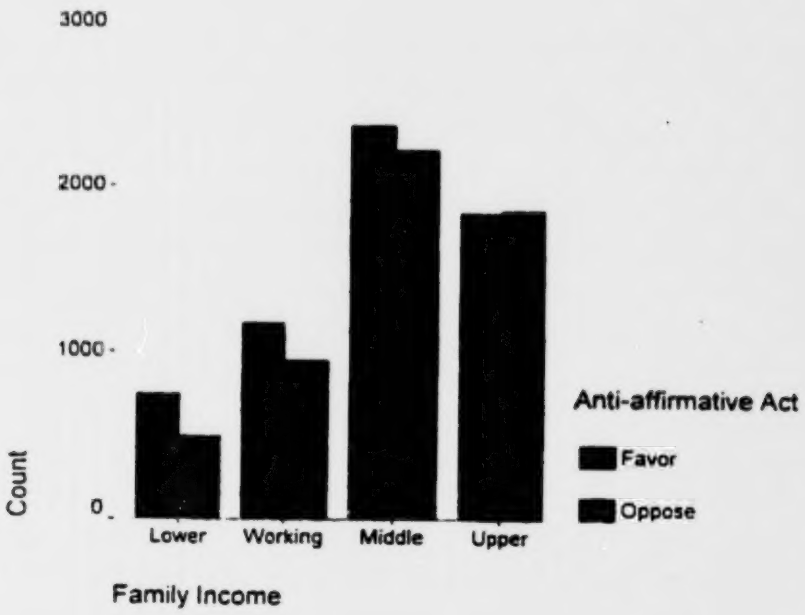


Family Income * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	47.886[a]	3	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	48.147	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	45.275	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	11635		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 586.86

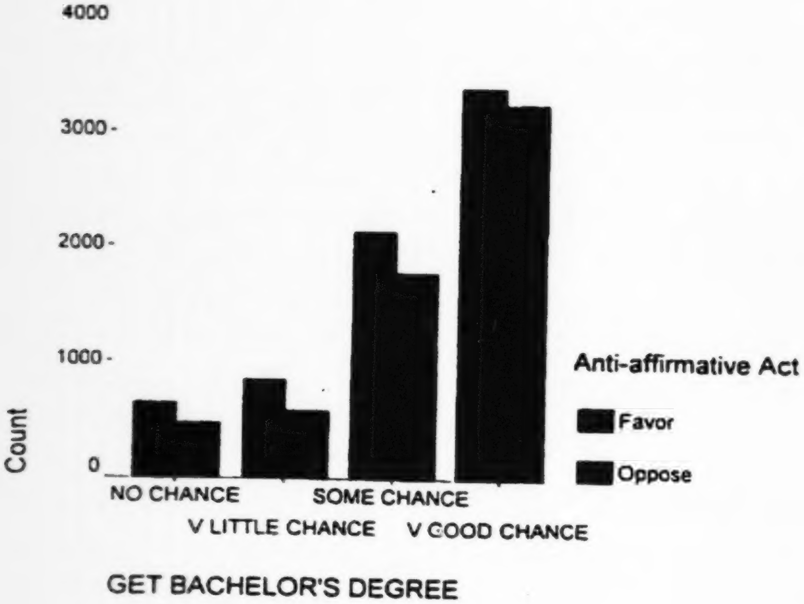


GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	44.623[a]	3	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	44.773	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	38.869	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	13108		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 522.25

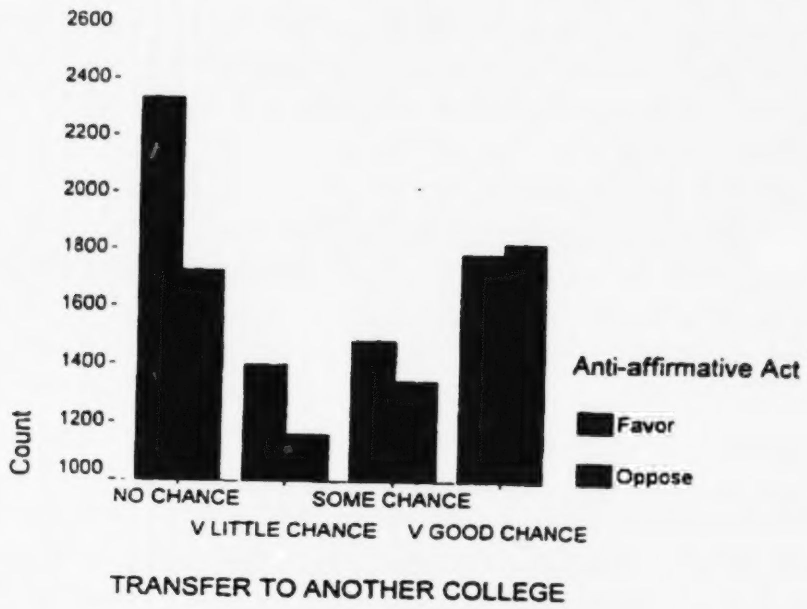


TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	51.552[a]	3	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	51.595	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	51.427	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	13070		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1188.48

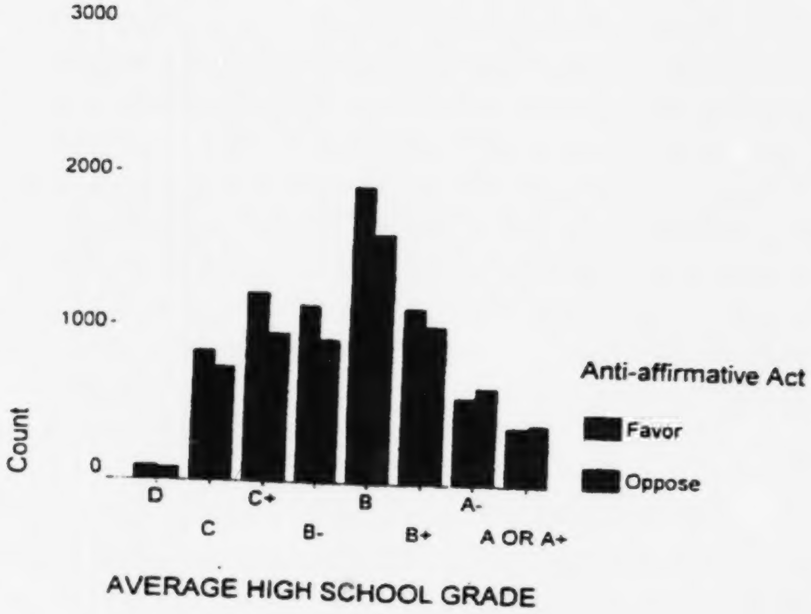


AVERAGE HIGH SCHOOL GRADE * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	36.420[a]	7	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	36.365	7	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	18.224	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	13599		

[a] 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 80.55.

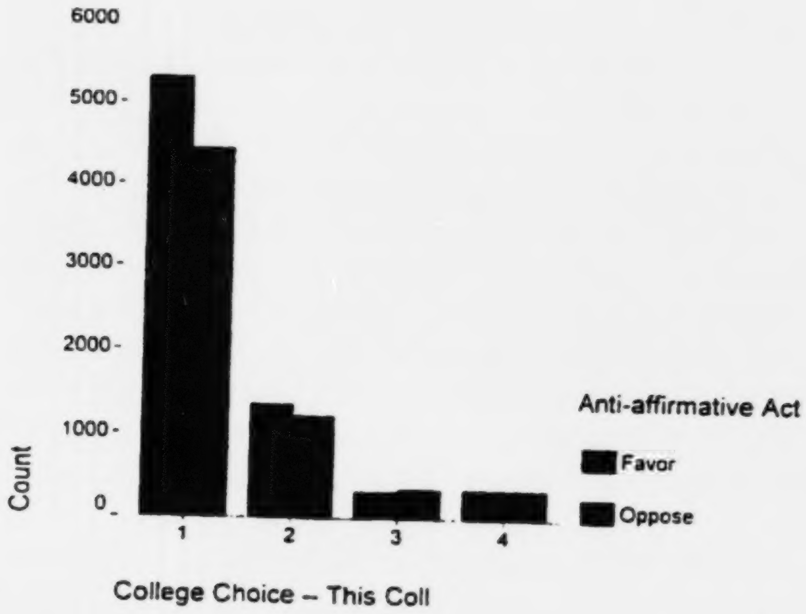


College Choice -- This Coll * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17.253[a]	3	.001
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	17.216	3	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	14.403	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	13705		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 314.98.

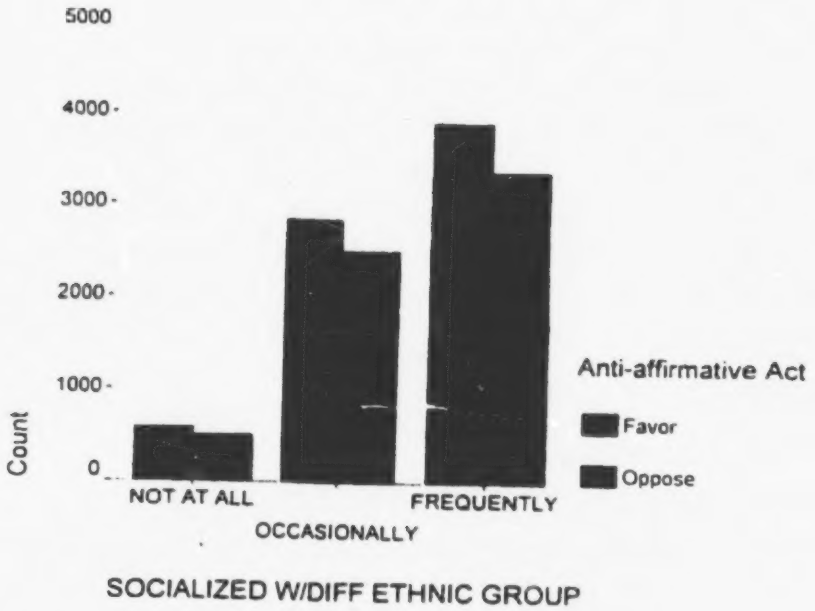


SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.369[a]	2	.832
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	.369	2	.832
Linear-by-Linear Association	.109	1	.742
N of Valid Cases	13695		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 503.51.

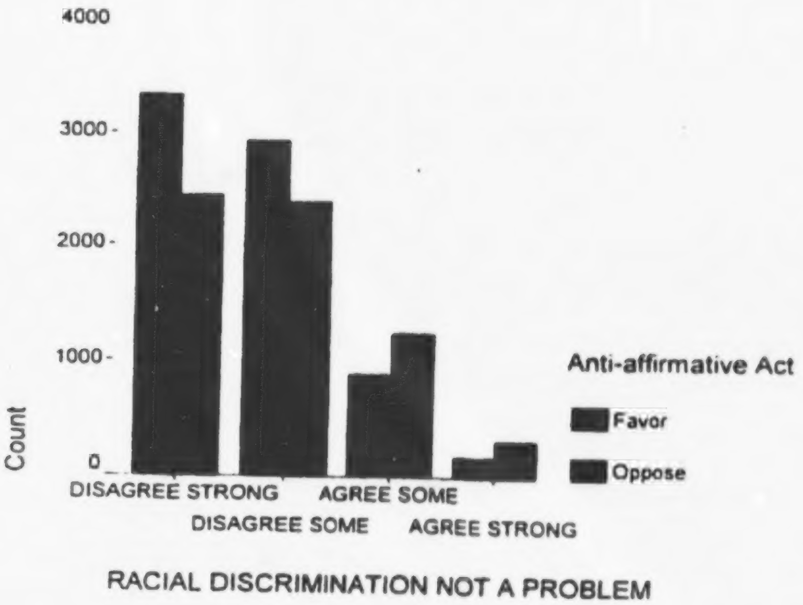


RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	231.230[a]	3	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	231.591	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	196.918	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	13761		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 234.19.

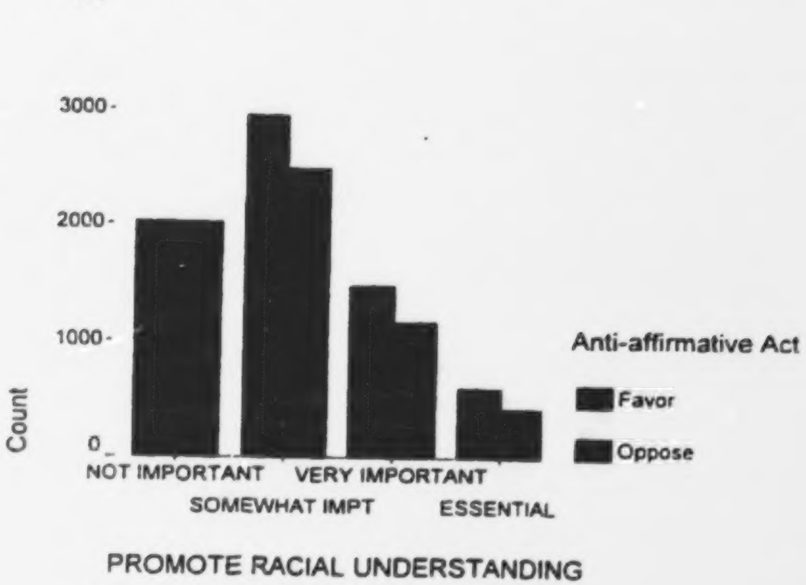


PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING * Anti-affirmative Action

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	36.237[a]	3	.000
Continuity Correction			
Likelihood Ratio	36.253	3	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	33.726	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	13166		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 480.40.


4000
3000
2000
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Count
NOT IMPORTANT
SOMEWHAT IMPT
VERY IMPORTANT
ESSENTIAL
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING
Anti-affirmative Act
Favor
Oppose

APPENDIX C
CORRELATIONAL ANALYSIS

Correlations

		Anti-affirmative Action	African American	Hispanic, non-African American	White, non-black, non-hispanic	FEMALE	Age
Anti-affirmative Action	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.110*	-.081*	.145*	-.140*	-.039*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	17858	17858	17858	17858	17840	17776
African American	Pearson Correlation	-.110*	1.000	-.131*	-.669*	.045*	.055*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	17858	20339	20339	20339	20314	20241
Hispanic, non-African American	Pearson Correlation	-.081*	-.131*	1.000	-.649*	-.001	.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.	.000	.937	.334
	N	17858	20339	20339	20339	20314	20241
White, non-black, non-hispanic	Pearson Correlation	.145*	-.669*	-.649*	1.000	-.034*	-.047*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	17858	20339	20339	20339	20314	20241
FEMALE	Pearson Correlation	-.140*	.045*	-.001	-.034*	1.000	.102*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.937	.000	.	.000
	N	17840	20314	20314	20314	20314	20219
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.039*	.055*	.007	-.047*	.102*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.334	.000	.000	.
	N	17776	20241	20241	20241	20219	20241
Family Income	Pearson Correlation	.088*	-.166*	-.155*	.243*	-.118*	-.110*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	14923	16342	16342	16342	16328	16265
Highest Years of Education Either Parent	Pearson Correlation	.082*	-.085*	-.248*	.251*	-.098*	-.221*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	17609	19824	19824	19824	19803	19731
Full Time Status	Pearson Correlation	.013	.012	-.058*	.034*	-.069*	-.311*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.089	.082	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	17688	20129	20129	20129	20108	20094

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Correlations

		Anti-affirmative Action	African American	Hispanic, non-African American	White, non-black, non-hispanic	FEMALE	Age
Liberal Political Views	Pearson Correlation	-.077*	.072*	.045*	-.089*	.050*	-.034*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	16543	17848	17848	17848	17832	17768
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE	Pearson Correlation	.036*	.031*	.000	-.024*	.030*	-.117*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.989	.001	.000	.000
	N	16843	18282	18282	18282	18261	18200
TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE	Pearson Correlation	.066*	-.068*	-.023*	.070*	-.050*	-.195*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000
	N	16782	18240	18240	18240	18218	18158
HIDEGRE2	Pearson Correlation	.030*	.019*	.000	-.015	.009	-.192*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.018	.967	.071	.276	.000
	N	13386	15076	15076	15076	15063	15008
High School GPA points	Pearson Correlation	.029*	-.084*	-.025*	.084*	.141*	-.090*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	17523	19883	19883	19883	19864	19849
College Choice -- This Coll	Pearson Correlation	.022*	.082*	.007	-.068*	-.060*	-.167*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000	.304	.000	.000	.000
	N	17700	20114	20114	20114	20089	20021
CONCERN ABOUT FINANCES	Pearson Correlation	-.034*	.051*	.127*	-.134*	.132*	.062*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	17316	19079	19079	19079	19059	18989
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP	Pearson Correlation	-.017*	.026*	.040*	-.050*	.059*	-.128*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	17667	19881	19881	19881	19860	19789
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM	Pearson Correlation	.152*	-.143*	-.043*	.142*	-.118*	-.037*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	17782	18842	18842	18842	18822	18752

Correlations

		Anti-affirmative Action	African American	Hispanic, non-African American	White, non-black, non-hispanic	FEMALE	Age
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING	Pearson Correlation	-.081*	.204*	.116*	-.243*	.095*	.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.060
	N	16903	18311	18311	18311	18292	18229
Inst. Race Black	Pearson Correlation	-.044*	.310*	.111*	-.321*	.039*	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.090
	N	17034	19436	19436	19436	19411	19344
Enrollment Size	Pearson Correlation	.010	-.020*	.132*	-.084*	-.082*	.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.173	.005	.000	.000	.000	.055
	N	17718	20182	20182	20182	20157	20085
Public Inst	Pearson Correlation	.000	.013	.024*	-.028*	.010	.124*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.956	.065	.001	.000	.160	.000
	N	17656	20117	20117	20117	20092	20020
Single Sex Inst	Pearson Correlation	-.004	-.011	.013	-.001	.043*	-.061*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.594	.111	.075	.911	.000	.000
	N	17656	20117	20117	20117	20092	20020

Correlations

		Family Income	Highest Years of Education Either Parent	Full Time Status	Liberal Political Views	GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE	TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE
Anti-affirmative Action	Pearson Correlation	.088*	.082*	.013	-.077*	.036*	.066*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.089	.000	.000	.000
	N	14923	17609	17688	16543	16843	16782
African American	Pearson Correlation	-.166*	-.085*	.012	.072*	.031*	-.068*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.082	.000	.000	.000
	N	16342	19824	20129	17848	18282	18240
Hispanic, non-African American	Pearson Correlation	-.155*	-.248*	-.058*	.045*	.000	-.023*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.989	.002
	N	16342	19824	20129	17848	18282	18240
White, non-black, non-hispanic	Pearson Correlation	.243*	.251*	.034*	-.089*	-.024*	.070*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000
	N	16342	19824	20129	17848	18282	18240
FEMALE	Pearson Correlation	-.118*	-.098*	-.069*	.050*	.030*	-.050*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	16328	19803	20108	17832	18261	18218
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.110*	-.221*	-.311*	-.034*	-.117*	-.195*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	16265	19731	20094	17768	18200	18158
Family Income	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.341*	.009	-.041*	.063*	.126*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.255	.000	.000	.000
	N	16342	16261	16191	14972	15101	15054
Highest Years of Education Either Parent	Pearson Correlation	.341*	1.000	.083*	-.031*	.126*	.132*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	16261	19824	19624	17609	17986	17948
Full Time Status	Pearson Correlation	.009	.083*	1.000	.016*	.041*	.028*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.255	.000	.	.033	.000	.000
	N	16191	19624	20129	17680	18107	18065

Correlations

		Family Income	Highest Years of Education Either Parent	Full Time Status	Liberal Political Views	GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE	TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE
Liberal Political Views	Pearson Correlation	-.041*	-.031*	.016*	1.000	.015*	.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.033	.	.045	.284
	N	14972	17609	17680	17848	16739	16685
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE	Pearson Correlation	.063*	.126*	.041*	.015*	1.000	.267*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.045	.	.000
	N	15101	17986	18107	16739	18282	18074
TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE	Pearson Correlation	.126*	.132*	.028*	.008	.267*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.284	.000	.
	N	15054	17948	18065	16685	18074	18240
HIDEGRE2	Pearson Correlation	.089*	.172*	.106*	.020*	.418*	.215*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.023	.000	.000
	N	12434	14762	14935	13448	13724	13673
High School GPA points	Pearson Correlation	-.029*	.057*	.032*	-.067*	.129*	.031*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	16061	19406	19770	17508	17925	17878
College Choice -- This Coll	Pearson Correlation	.069*	.077*	.063*	.044*	.103*	.233*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	16202	19621	19915	17683	18117	18080
CONCERN ABOUT FINANCES	Pearson Correlation	-.291*	-.137*	-.024*	.023*	.049*	.015*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.002	.000	.041
	N	15640	18761	18888	17691	17740	17700
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP	Pearson Correlation	.042*	.084*	.040*	.038*	.124*	.065*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	16156	19486	19685	17626	18055	18009
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM	Pearson Correlation	.031*	.026*	.009	-.073*	-.058*	.026*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.197	.000	.000	.000
	N	15533	18544	18654	17214	17611	17575

Correlations

		Family Income	Highest Years of Education Either Parent	Full Time Status	Liberal Political Views	GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE	TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING	Pearson Correlation	-.061*	-.032*	.007	.113*	.128*	.049*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.351	.000	.000	.000
	N	15134	18027	18134	16787	17922	17890
Inst. Race Black	Pearson Correlation	-.116*	-.068*	.045*	.036*	.041*	-.017*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.028
	N	15587	18940	19231	17025	17435	17391
Enrollment Size	Pearson Correlation	.038*	-.008	-.039*	.073*	.009	.027*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.268	.000	.000	.211	.000
	N	16200	19670	19972	17710	18136	18094
Public Inst	Pearson Correlation	-.062*	-.082*	-.154*	.039*	-.064*	.049*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	16149	19606	19907	17649	18074	18031
Single Sex Inst	Pearson Correlation	.043*	.031*	.062*	.002	.053*	-.019*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.815	.000	.010
	N	16149	19606	19907	17649	18074	18031

Correlations

		HIDEGRE2	High School GPA points	College Choice -- This Coll	CONCERN ABOUT FINANCES	SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP	RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM
Anti-affirmative Action	Pearson Correlation	.030*	.029*	.022*	-.034*	-.017*	.152*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.003	.000	.025	.000
	N	13386	17523	17700	17316	17667	17782
African American	Pearson Correlation	.019*	-.084*	.082*	.051*	.026*	-.143*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	15076	19883	20114	19079	19881	18842
Hispanic, non-African American	Pearson Correlation	.000	-.025*	.007	.127*	.040*	-.043*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.967	.000	.304	.000	.000	.000
	N	15076	19883	20114	19079	19881	18842
White, non-black, non-hispanic	Pearson Correlation	-.015	.084*	-.068*	-.134*	-.050*	.142*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.071	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	15076	19883	20114	19079	19881	18842
FEMALE ,	Pearson Correlation	.009	.141*	-.060*	.132*	.059*	-.118*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.276	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	15063	19864	20089	19059	19860	18822
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.192*	-.090*	-.167*	.062*	-.128*	-.037*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	15008	19849	20021	18989	19789	18752
Family Income	Pearson Correlation	.089*	-.029*	.069*	-.291*	.042*	.031*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	12434	16061	16202	15640	16156	15533
Highest Years of Education Either Parent	Pearson Correlation	.172*	.057*	.077*	-.137*	.084*	.026*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	14762	19406	19621	18761	19486	18544
Full Time Status	Pearson Correlation	.106*	.032*	.063*	-.024*	.040*	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.197
	N	14935	19770	19915	18888	13685	18654

Correlations

		HIDEGRE2	High School GPA points	College Choice -- This Coll	CONCERN ABOUT FINANCES	SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP	RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM
Liberal Political Views	Pearson Correlation	.020*	-.067*	.044*	.023*	.038*	-.073*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.000	.000	.002	.000	.000
	N	13448	17508	17683	17691	17626	17214
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE	Pearson Correlation	.418*	.129*	.103*	.049*	.124*	-.058*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	13724	17925	18117	17740	18055	17611
TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE	Pearson Correlation	.215*	.031*	.233*	.015*	.065*	.026*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.041	.000	.000
	N	13673	17878	18080	17700	18009	17575
HIDEGRE2	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.136*	.144*	.060*	.152*	-.044*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	15076	14791	14934	14236	14792	14065
High School GPA points	Pearson Correlation	.136*	1.000	-.020*	.011	.007	.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.006	.117	.362	.052
	N	14791	19883	19676	18679	19458	18455
College Choice -- This Coll	Pearson Correlation	.144*	-.020*	1.000	.038*	.075*	-.014
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.006	.	.000	.000	.064
	N	14934	19676	20114	18888	19677	18654
CONCERN ABOUT FINANCES	Pearson Correlation	.060*	.011	.038*	1.000	.041*	-.054*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.117	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	14236	18679	18888	19079	18788	18208
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP	Pearson Correlation	.152*	.007	.075*	.041*	1.000	-.088*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.362	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	14792	19458	19677	18788	19881	18622
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM	Pearson Correlation	-.044*	.014	-.014	-.054*	-.088*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.052	.064	.000	.000	.
	N	14065	18455	18654	18208	18622	18842

Correlations

		HIDEGRE2	High School GPA points	College Choice -- This Coll	CONCERN ABOUT FINANCES	SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP	RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING	Pearson Correlation	.142*	-.031*	.050*	.111*	.215*	-.156*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	13718	17954	18145	17780	18098	17694
Inst. Race Black	Pearson Correlation	.013	-.026*	.075*	.043*	-.039*	-.056*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.112	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	14386	18996	19217	18210	18994	17989
Enrollment Size	Pearson Correlation	-.019*	-.097*	.082*	.011	.004	-.021*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.000	.000	.124	.531	.005
	N	14945	19728	19957	18933	19727	18698
Public Inst	Pearson Correlation	-.086*	.002	.010	.013	-.058*	-.005
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.782	.176	.065	.000	.492
	N	14893	19663	19895	18869	19662	18633
Single Sex Inst	Pearson Correlation	.056*	.003	.009	-.011	.041*	-.017*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.662	.184	.148	.000	.017
	N	14893	19663	19895	18869	19662	18633

Correlations

		PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING	Inst. Race Black	Enrollment Size	Public Inst	Single Sex Inst
Anti-affirmative Action	Pearson Correlation	-.081*	-.044*	.010	.000	-.004
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.173	.956	.594
	N	16903	17034	17718	17656	17656
African American	Pearson Correlation	.204*	.310*	-.020*	.013	-.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.005	.065	.111
	N	18311	19436	20182	20117	20117
Hispanic, non-African American	Pearson Correlation	.116*	.111*	.132*	.024*	.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001	.075
	N	18311	19436	20182	20117	20117
White, non-black, non-hispanic	Pearson Correlation	-.243*	-.321*	-.084*	-.028*	-.001
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.911
	N	18311	19436	20182	20117	20117
FEMALE	Pearson Correlation	.095*	.039*	-.082*	.010	.043*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.160	.000
	N	18292	19411	20157	20092	20092
Age	Pearson Correlation	.014	.012	.014	.124*	-.061*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.060	.090	.055	.000	.000
	N	18229	19344	20085	20020	20020
Family Income	Pearson Correlation	-.061*	-.116*	.038*	-.062*	.043*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	15134	15587	16200	16149	16149
Highest Years of Education Either Parent	Pearson Correlation	-.032*	-.068*	-.008	-.082*	.031*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.268	.000	.000
	N	18027	18940	19670	19606	19606
Full Time Status	Pearson Correlation	.007	.045*	-.039*	-.154*	.062*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.351	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	18134	19231	19972	19907	19907

Correlations

		PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING	Inst. Race Black	Enrollment Size	Public Inst	Single Sex Inst
Liberal Political Views	Pearson Correlation	.113*	.036*	.073*	.039*	.002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.815
	N	16787	17025	17710	17649	17649
GET BACHELOR'S DEGREE	Pearson Correlation	.128*	.041*	.009	-.064*	.053*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.211	.000	.000
	N	17922	17435	18136	18074	18074
TRANSFER TO ANOTHER COLLEGE	Pearson Correlation	.049*	-.017*	.027*	.049*	-.019*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.028	.000	.000	.010
	N	17890	17391	18094	18031	18031
HIDEGRE2	Pearson Correlation	.142*	.013	-.019*	-.086*	.056*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.112	.023	.000	.000
	N	13718	14386	14945	14893	14893
High School GPA points	Pearson Correlation	-.031*	-.026*	-.097*	.002	.003
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.782	.662
	N	17954	18996	19728	19663	19663
College Choice -- This Coll	Pearson Correlation	.050*	.075*	.082*	.010	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.176	.184
	N	18145	19217	19957	19895	19895
CONCERN ABOUT FINANCES	Pearson Correlation	.111*	.043*	.011	.013	-.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.124	.065	.148
	N	17780	18210	18933	18869	18869
SOCIALIZED W/DIFF ETHNIC GROUP	Pearson Correlation	.215*	-.039*	.004	-.058*	.041*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.531	.000	.000
	N	18098	18994	19727	19662	19662
RACIAL DISCRIMINATION NOT A PROBLEM	Pearson Correlation	-.156*	-.056*	-.021*	-.005	-.017*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.005	.492	.017
	N	17694	17989	18698	18633	18633

Correlations

		PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING	Inst. Race Black	Enrollment Size	Public Inst	Single Sex Inst
PROMOTE RACIAL UNDERSTANDING	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.085*	.001	-.055*	.023*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.925	.000	.002
	N	18311	17465	18169	18105	18105
Inst. Race Black	Pearson Correlation	.085*	1.000	.048*	.078*	-.028*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.000	.000	.000
	N	17465	19436	19436	19436	19436
Enrollment Size	Pearson Correlation	.001	.048*	1.000	.400*	-.237*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.925	.000	.	.000	.000
	N	18169	19436	20182	20117	20117
Public Inst	Pearson Correlation	-.055*	.078*	.400*	1.000	-.366*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	.000
	N	18105	19436	20117	20117	20117
Single Sex Inst	Pearson Correlation	.023*	-.028*	-.237*	-.366*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	18105	19436	20117	20117	20117

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table C1

Pearson Product Moment Correlations between Independent Variables and Dependent Variable by Race/Ethnicity

Variable	African American (n=2,425)	Hispanic (n=2,300)	White (n=15,614)
Gender	-.072**	-.093**	-.149**
Age	-.081**	-.043	-.023**
Annual Family Income	.026	.059	.056**
Parental Educational Attainment	.009	.036	.060**
Enrollment Status	.018	.030	.004
Political Views	.007	-.043	-.079**
Get a bachelor's degree	-.042	.005	.054**
Transfer Intent	.025	.033	.063**
Highest degree planned	-.078**	-.017	-.056**
Academic Preparedness (H.S. GPA)	-.078**	-.047	.035**
College Choice	.029	.048	.032**
Concern about Finances	-.013	-.011	-.018
Cross-race socialization	-.052	-.012	-.003
Racial discrimination is not a problem	.201**	.172**	.120**
Promoting Racial Understanding	-.053	-.009	-.051**
Institutional race	.014	.002	.005
Institutional size	-.010	.012	.024**
Institutional control	.004	-.009	.006
Institutional sex	-.005	-.013	-.002

Note. **p≤.01

VITA

Eboni Mie'l Zamani

Current Address:
1600 West Bradley Ave. apt. U361
Champaign, IL 61821
(217) 355-3185
(217) 333-0657
zamani@students.uiuc.edu

Permanent Address:
19922 S. Terrace Street
Lynwood, IL 60411
(708) 889-1945

EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana-Champaign, IL
Ph.D. May 2000, Higher Education Administration
Department of Educational Organization and Leadership
Area of Specialization: Community College Leadership
Dissertation Title - Aspiring to the Baccalaureate: Attitudes of Community College Students Toward Affirmative Action in College Admissions

WESTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY Macomb, IL
Masters of Science May 1997, General Experimental Psychology, Thesis Title: Affirmative Action Programming: Perceived Threat, Subjective Well-being, Racial Affect, and Attitudinal Opposition of White Americans

Bachelors of Science May 1993, Psychology Cum Laude

RELEVANT EXPERIENCE

August 1998-
May 1999

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana-Champaign, IL
Graduate Student Advisory Council Coordinator, Graduate College
Responded to student concerns and requests, facilitate all aspects of the GSAC annual budget, aid in the selection and appointment of graduate students to campus-wide committees, and author GSAC promotional pieces. Worked on various projects to improve graduate student life at the University of Illinois.

January 1998-
May 1998

PARKLAND COMMUNITY COLLEGE Champaign, IL
Graduate Intern, Minority Student Transfer Office and Adult and Continuing Education
Conducted a case study analysis regarding barriers to transition between two- and four-year institutions among students of color. Devised an evaluation plan (i.e., instrument and design) for a follow-up study to assess the impact of the Transition Course.

August 1996-
May 1997

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana-Champaign, IL
Administrative Graduate Counselor, Office of Minority Student Affairs, Career Activities Unit
Provided career counseling, coordinated Multicultural Career Conference, and advised the Multicultural Student Advisory Committee on Careers.

May 1995-
August 1995

WESTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY Macomb, IL
Assistant Program Coordinator - Dean's Office of the College of Education
Coordinated College of Education SARP (Summer Academic Residential Program) and SMTP (Summer Minority Tutoring Program) opportunities enrichment programs for Jr. High School and High School students. Responsible for a staff of 16 interns who were tutors and/or counselors for WIU summer extension programs, payroll, and coordinated College of Education Summer Student Awards Banquet.

May 1994-
August 1994

Administrative Assistant - Dean's Office of the College of Education
Administrative assistant to the Director of the College of Education summer minority sponsored programs. Senior counselor of the SARP (Summer Academic Residential Program) in which academically talented teens attended an educational camp to inspire them to continually consider college and strive for excellence.

August 1993-
May 1994

Graduate Assistant - University Counseling Center
Assisted students with career counseling, class registration, and aided with graduate school information. Facilitated workshops on study skills, relationships and school, and self-esteem of women. Also coordinated a women of color fellowship, scored psychological testing and career interests assessments. Proctored standardized tests such as the GRE, ACT, Illinois Teaching Certification Test and the University Writing Exam.

RESEARCH
EXPERIENCE

August 1998-
Present

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana-Champaign, IL
Research Associate - Office of Community College Research and Leadership
Assist with data analysis and reporting of national study on Tech Prep student transition to postsecondary education and employment (Funded by the U.S. Department of Education 1/98 to present). Also involved in the Higher Education Consortium Act Evaluation Grant and acted as Guest Editor for the OCCRL *Update*

Newsletter sought to assemble articles that make contributions to improving the quality of community college education.

June 1999- July 1999	ACT, Inc. Iowa City, IA Summer Doctoral Research Intern – Workforce Development Division Assisted in new product test development for Work Keys System. Conducted market research to examine needs assessment in computer skill testing for industry. Devised a guide for conducting focus group research with educators and business leaders regarding workplace computer skill gaps.
June 1998- August 1998	MATHEMATICA POLICY RESEARCH, Inc. Washington, DC Summer Research Fellow - Survey and Information Services Division Conducted an exploratory pilot study to assess attitudes toward affirmative action among graduate and professional students of color.
August 1997- May 1998	UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana-Champaign, IL Research Assistant - Department of Public Safety, Computing and Consulting Services Office, and Department of Sociology Through a U.S. Department of Defense grant, assisted with a collaborative study examining community oriented policing and computer theft on college campuses. Developed a survey to assess the role of community oriented policing relative to computer security concerns of institutional network administrators. Coded data, entered data, cleaned data and wrote findings report.
September 1995- December 1996	Evaluation Assistant, Illinois Cooperative Extension Service Transcribing telephone interview studies, coding data, designing instruments to measure various programs for the Extension Program Planning and Evaluation Unit. Data entry, data cleansing, data analysis, formal research report writing of suggested findings. Worked on DOS and Windows applications, Corel Suite, Lotus Suite, MS Office, and SPSS.
January 1995- May 1995	WESTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY Macomb, IL Research Assistant - Office of Affirmative Action Collected data, and provided a research report on racial attitudes, campus climate and student retention in relationship to affirmative action programming, policies and regulations at the University. Assisted Director at EEO/AA functions and search committee sessions.

January 1994-
May 1994

Research Assistant - Department of African American Studies
Aided in developing a survey for study on freshman year transition. Collected data for freshman year study on cultural diversity and adjustment. Responsible for data base management. Coded data, entered data, and cleaned data.

June 1992-
July 1992

UNIVERSITY OF NOTRE DAME South Bend, IN
Summer Research Intern - PMEGS (Promoting Minority Education in Graduate School) Psychology Department
Assisted with research in the area of metacognition and problem solving. Prepared a preliminary statistical report on data gathered by faculty mentor.

June 1991-
August 1991

UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO Boulder, CO
Summer Research Intern - SMART (Summer Minority Access to Research Training) Psychology Department
Conducted a pilot study that addressed destigmatization among African American adults. Assisted with the development of an interview and coding procedure for assessment.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

August 1997-
May 1998

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana-Champaign, IL
Graduate Teaching Assistant - Department of Educational Psychology
Assisted with mass lecture for Educational Psychology 211 preservice course required for students enrolled in teacher certification. Prepared lesson plans and syllabi for leading two-hour weekly discussion section. Fostered cooperative learning exercises and promoted non-traditional, creative, and collaborative pedegological teaching methods. Assisted in developing and grading examinations.

June 1997-
August 1997

Instructor - Upward Bound College Prep Academy
Provided classroom instruction in English and Computer Science for Freshmen and Sophomore High School Students. Prepared lesson plans and syllabi, Prepared and administered mid-term and final exams given during the third and sixth week of the summer session. Scored and recorded homework assignments and tests. Worked closely with residential staff (i.e., tutors and counselors), teaching assistants, and administrative staff.

January 1997-
May 1998

Instructor - Department of Community Health
Taught Community Health Survey Course dealing with the social, economic, biological, and psychological effects of drug use and abuse on American & world cultures (Community Health 143).

Planned thought provoking classroom activities relevant to current literature on drugs. Coordinated group projects, presentations, and research writing requirements. Graded research papers and other assignments. Met with students to provide guidance for course assignments and examinations.

August 1994- May 1995	WESTERN ILLINOIS UNIVERSITY Macomb, IL Graduate Teaching Assistant - African American Studies Department Developed workshops on research writing, aided professors with course assignments, papers, and examinations. Assisted with lectures and presentations for AAS 100 (Introduction to African American Studies), AAS 186 (Ancient African Civilizations), and AAS 275 (Black Psychology). Met with students to provide tutoring and guidance for class assignments. Aided AAS minors with registration for AAS classes and assisted with the reinstallation of the AAS Club.

PUBLICATIONS

Zamani, E. M. (1998, Spring). Responding to changing demographics: Embracing diversity initiatives in education [Review of the book Educating a new majority: Transforming America's educational system for diversity]. Journal of Vocational Education Research, 23(2), 169-176.

Zamani, E. M. (Forthcoming). Sources and information regarding effective retention strategies for students of color. In S. R. Aragon (ed.), Increasing retention and learning success for minority students. New Directions for Community Colleges, Winter 2000 no.4, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Zamani, E. M. (Forthcoming). Transfer centers: Purpose, role, and issues of effectiveness. In F. S. Laanan (ed.), Transfer students: Trends and Issues for the new century. New Directions for Community Colleges, Summer 2001 no.2, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Brown, M. C., Zamani, E. M., & Clark, K. (In progress). Twenty-year publication trends in The Review of Higher Education.

Zamani, Eboni M. (In progress). As the pendulum of opportunity swings: Resistance, retrenchment, and the future of affirmative action.

Zamani, E. M. & Brown, M. C. (In progress). Societal attitudes toward affirmative action: Implications for policy and practice.

PRESENTATIONS

November 1999 Publication trends in The Review of Higher Education. Presented at the Annual Association for the Study of Higher Education Conference, San Antonio, Texas.

March 1999 The Ever-changing Role of Affirmative Action in a Competitive Environment. Presented at the Annual American Association for Higher Education Conference, Washington,D.C.

November 1996 Affirmative Action Programming: Perceived Threat, Life Satisfaction, and Attitudinal Opposition of White Americans. Presented at the Eighth Annual Illinois Consortium for Educational Opportunity Fellows Conference, Southern Illinois University Edwardsville, IL.

October 1996 Opposition to Affirmative Action: Implications for Higher Education. Presented at the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators Multicultural Student Leaders Institute, Indianapolis, Indiana.

April 1996 Technicalities of Writing Extension Reports: Success Stories. Presented at the Seventh Annual Illinois Cooperative Extension Para-Professional Conference, The Chancellor, Champaign, Illinois.

January 1996 Assessing the Collegiate function at the Community College: A Case Study of Spoon River College, Macomb, Illinois. Presented at the First Annual Omicron Tau Theta Honors Society and Vocational & Technical Educational Studies Department, University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois.

April 1995 Ecological Variables that Influence African American Student Retention and Inclusion on College Campuses. Presented at the Third Annual Graduate Student Conference on Multiculturalism and Marginality, Simmons College, Boston, Massachusetts.

March 1995 Cultural Orientation and Well-Being of African American Students at Predominately White Institutions. Presented at the African Heritage Studies Association, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

March 1995 Effective Strategies for Combating Declining Retention of African American Collegians. Presented at the 12th Annual Association for the Study of African Civilizations Conference, Detroit, Michigan.

February 1995 Issues of Transition and Retention Among African American Collegians. Presented at the Third Annual National Association of African American Studies Conference, Virginia State University, St.Petersburg, Virginia.

COMMITTEES

Assistant Professor, Community College Leadership Faculty Search Committee
Department of Human Resource Education Tenure-track, 1998-99.

Professor and Head of Educational Organization and Leadership Department Search Committee, 1999-00.

HONORS	1998-2000	University of Illinois, William Chandler Bagley Fellow
	1998-2000	Illinois Consortium for Educational Opportunities Fellow
	1997-1999	Western Illinois University Future Faculty Fellow
	1996	Phi Kappa Delta, Education Honors Society
	1996	Kappa Delta Pi, International Honor Society in Education
	1995	Zeta Phi Beta Sorority, Inc. Finer Womanhood Award, Omicron Kappa Chapter
	1994	Sigma Gamma Rho Sorority, Inc. Outstanding Woman of Color Award, Epsilon Beta Chapter
	1993-1995	Western Illinois University Future Faculty Fellow
	1993-1995	Illinois Consortium for Educational Opportunities Fellow
	1993	National Collegiate Education Award

ASSOCIATION MEMBERSHIPS	American Association of Community Colleges American Association for Higher Education American Educational Research Association Association for Institutional Research Association for the Study of Higher Education

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Organization/Address: Eastern Michigan University, Dept. of Leadership and Counseling

Telephone: (734) 487-0255

FAX: 487-4608

E-Mail Address: ezamani@emich.edu

Date: 9/9/03

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